The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 25, 1907.

The Week.

President Roosevelt never did a finer thing than his reply, Wednesday morning, to the protesting labor unions. They have been showering him with demands that he retract his statement that Moyer, Haywood, and Debs were "undesirable citizens." Now, as we have said, we think it was indiscreet for the President to make that public reference to men on trial for their lives, but he has certainly made up for the indiscretion by a manly and courageous utterance. His retort upon the labor intimidators is overwhelming. If his phrase could be twisted into an attempt to prejudice a fair trial of the indicted men, what must be said of their excited and inflammatory appeals? "Death Cannot, Will Not, And Shall Not Claim Our Brothers" was on the very letterhead of the protest sent to the President. Mr. Roosevelt points out with great force that this and the other banded activities of the labor leaders can bear no interpretation except that they are determined *not* to have a fair trial, and to tolerate no verdict but that of acquittal. Protestations from such men are farcical. Their mouths are shut. And when, in honest indignation, President Roosevelt holds up to public scorn those wicked chiefs of labor organizations whose policy is violence, incitement to crime, and bloodshed, he puts the whole country in his debt. Such a frank and timely deliverance will help to keep alive that ideal of Roosevelt which we all like to cherish.

It cannot be too distinctly laid down that President Roosevelt's removal of Collector Archie A. Sanders of the Port of Rochester, purely for political reasons, as is officially admitted, is directly in violation of his own professions and pledges, as it certainly is of all sound principles of civil-service reform. It is not alleged that Sanders was in any way incompetent or derelict. He was simply "Wadsworth's man," and therefore had to go. Of such ruthless use of public offices, the President has put on record his indignant condemnation. In the brave days when he was a civil-service reformer, he said (1895):

> Removals for political reasons in places where the duties are wholly non-political, cannot be defended by any man who looks at public affairs from the proper standpoint.

Even his afterthought about the duty of using patronage to hold up the hands of Hughes, he had accurately branded in advance. In his *Century* article of 1900, he wrote: "No man is justified in doing evil on the ground of expediency." Also:

> As soon as a politician gets to the point of thinking that, in order to be "practical," he has got to be base, he has become a noxious member of the body politic.

And if anybody says that we ought not to criticise a great and good President for being false to his promises and careless of reform, we have a warrant in his own words. In his valiant essay on "Civil-Service Reform," he spoke of the duty of "all friends of reform" to watch carefully the course of public officials:

> They should be condemned when they do ill; and attention should be called not only to what they do, but to what they fail to do. To an even greater extent, of course, this applies to the President.

It is probable that Mr. Roosevelt did not fully realize the shock and dismay which his action would bring to those civil-service reformers who used to be glad to fight under the same banner with him. He has done many things before to try their faith. He has made some appointments hard to justify; he has "taken care" of too many personal friends. But never before has he bluntly announced such a policy of proscription as he now tells us he means to follow.

In the last number of *Pearson's* James Creelman writes of Secretary Taft with evident admiration, and sets forth his good qualities and his fitness for high office. The article is entitled "The Mystery of Mr. Taft," and what is the great mystery? Why, that "a statesman of stainless name, unshakable independence, and creative and administrative abilities that have compelled admiration throughout the world, should stir so little enthusiasm in the American people"! One can imagine how distasteful such an appeal for pity, mixed with reproach of the people for being blind to his transcendent merits, must be to the hearty, frank, and unambiguous Secretary of War. For the rest, Mr. Creelman's article gives a well-informed and sympathetic description of Mr. Taft's training and public career. Some new material is included. Perhaps the most interesting part of this relates to the Secretary's strong preference for the Supreme Court, yet his putting away that ambition when it seemed to him that duty required him to stay in the Philippines. Mr. Creelman refers also to those judicial opinions of Mr. Taft in labor cases, which politicians have thought would be fatal to his chances. If it so prove, then it is a highly honorable part of the record which will be disastrous. His decision finding the Bricklayers' Union in conspiracy; against the Typographical Union for illegal boycotting; and his granting of an injunction against the Locomotive Engineers were all judicial acts based upon the principles of the Common Law and our charters of individual liberty, as clearly as was his famous decision in the case of the Addystone Pipe Company, perpetually enjoining that illegal combination, too. If these decisions of an upright judge are a bar to political advancement, they will be one more evidence of the premium which politicians put upon "low and crouching men." The politicians are often wrong, however. As in Burke's day, they frequently show that they do not know their own business. And it may yet be that the Taft candidacy will shake itself clear of blundering friends and misguided official sponsors; so that the people, left to their own choice and not prematurely rushed from the White House, will come freely to think of the Secretary as a man in whose hands they might safely place the responsibilities of the highest office.

We are opposed to a large navy, but we believe that such ships as we get should be constructed according to the latest and best methods. Take the case of the two 20,000-ton battleships, of which we have heard so much. The plans approved last week call for a speed of only 20 knots, although the English Dreadnought, which they are supposed to rival, has made 22¼ knots. By great effort, the Department hopes to complete them in three years, which would surpass previous American building records by from one and one-half to two years. But, supposing these ships are afloat and in commission in three years, they will only be contemporaries of some British vessels which will be laid down a year hence. It is idle to expect that the English battleships of 1910 will have only the same speed as the Dreadnought; they may be counted on to be capable of at least 23 knots, for England is already building three armored cruisers of 22,500 tons, with a speed of 25 knots. Again, the object of the Navy Department was to have the "biggest ships afloat." So its experts are planning for vessels 2,000 tons larger than the Dreadnought. But Japan is already ahead of them, since she has placed an order for two 21,000-ton ships, to say nothing of the British cruisers. Thus not even the title "biggest in the world" can be applied to our sea-monsters. So far as their engines are concerned, while no definite announcement has been made, it is understood that our

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newest boats are to be provided with turbines. Lest anybody think that this is an original idea, we hasten to say that the Navy Department scoffed at turbines long after they had been tried by the British, and found to be the engine of the future. Fully a year ago the Admiralty announced that on most classes of ships, turbines alone would be installed hereafter. At this time, we believe, only one vessel of the sixteen now under construction for the United States navy is being equipped with turbine machinery. The nine first-class battleships now nearing completion have reciprocating engines, and not one is planned for a speed of twenty knots. Even Germany has adopted turbines for her new vessels, and, as is usually the case, the American merchant marine is ahead of the navy, for there are several turbine steamers, including the Harvard and Yale of a New York-Boston line, ready to go into commercial service.

Not in years has a more notable gathering been held in this city than the Peace Congress, which concluded its sessions last week. Its success was due quite as much to the earnestness of speakers and audiences as to the presence of men of great reputation who of themselves would attract a crowd. The public should not be misled by the manner in which the local press has emphasized an occasional passage at arms, or by the admission to the programme of one or two men who have only just begun to understand what the crusade for peace means. As Mr. Bryce pointed out at the final dinner, there was a remarkable unity of opinion; those present at the sessions were, whether temporarily or permanently, enthusiastically in favor of abrogating war. Intensely practical suggestions abounded. Some of them were of the utmost value, notably President Eliot's appeal for an international police force, with duties of preserving the peace, instead of violating it. In this he but elaborated his recent admirable address to the Boston police, in which he exalted their functions as contrasted with those of mere soldiery whose functions are primarily destructive. The demand for a supreme court for the nations was strongly presented, as were also the various pleas for a better understanding between the nations. Mr. Bryan would advance the brotherhood of man by educating young foreigners here, and then sending them back to heir own homes as ambassadors of peace and good will. The exchange of professors he would supplement by an exchange of students. So far as the resolutions are concerned, the most scrupulous diplomat could not cavil at them. A more permanent and comprehensive international union; the establishment of the Hague Conference and Hague Court as permanent institutions; the drafting by the former of a general treaty of arbitration for ratification by all the nations; the endorsement of the Interparliamentary Union's plan for an international commission of inquiry or for mediation where arbitration is impossible—all these are proposals which are easily capable of fulfilment if the influence of the leaders of world opinion is but thrown behind them. Never was there a cause in which the will could find the way more easily.

Mr. Bryce was not present at the dedication of the Carnegie Institute at Pittsburgh. As yet, however, we have observed no demand, even from Mr. Carnegie, that we therefore declare war upon Great Britain. Many people in this country were not aware of Mr. Bryce's failure to attend the exercises; and those who knew have kept calm. But the matter came up in Parliament Monday, and Mr. Bryce was criticised in both the Lords and the Commons. Lord Leith of Fyvie went so far as to say that "Great Britain had stood aloof, and it would be most disappointing to see the late Lord Pauncefote's great work of reëstablishing a good understanding between the United States and Great Britain endangered by an act of indifference, which might be misconstrued into something stronger." All this, of course, is partly Opposition tactics. Naturally, the Conservatives lose no chance to worry the Government. But beneath the words of Lord Leith lies a somewhat exaggerated notion of the touchiness of Americans. We are proud of our institutions of art and learning, and therefore, so runs the argument, we must be incensed whenever the effete kings and emperors of the Old World are not properly represented at the commencements, anniversaries, and the laying of corner-stones. Whether this view was ever tenable, we shall not undertake to discuss. At any rate, there has been a change since the days of Dickens's Jefferson Brick, and the Americans whom Mrs. Trollope saw. We are proud of our colleges and libraries; we are glad to have distinguished foreigners attend our celebrations; but, if Mr. Bryce, M. Jusserand, or Baron Speck von Sternburg have previous engagements, we are not spoiled children, that we should fly into a rage over an imagined slight.

The historic Massachusetts policy of exempting from taxation the property of educational institutions is attacked by a bill now pending in the Legislature opening to taxation "such real estate . . . as is occupied as a residence by an officer of instruction, administration, or government." This is a bill which would make relatively little practical difference to any of the colleges within the State, and to some, perhaps, none at all; but its very proposal is new evidence of the disposition which has been manifested in some of the smaller college towns of New England to tax certain college property. It is a strange phenomenon that Massachusetts, the pioneer in fostering public education, should join a movement like this at a time when the Western States are treating higher education with unprecedented liberality. While Cambridge and Williamstown are begrudging the sum that would accrue to their treasuries if certain college property were in private hands, every dollar's worth of property in Michigan, Minnesota, and other Western States is levied upon annually for the support of the State universities. Not only that, but these States are voluntarily raising their rate of taxation for education. The Wisconsin Legislature, for instance, recently increased the University tax to two-fifths of a mill on every dollar of assessment. With encouragement of this kind offered in the newer sections of the country, it would be indeed unfortunate if fresh obstacles were put in the way of Eastern institutions depending on private endowment.

Mr. Asquith's budget for the coming twelvemonth, presented to the House of Commons last week, is in several ways an adroit compromise. The Chancellor of the Exchequer had been confronted by a dilemma. On the one hand, the Labor party was urgent in its endorsement of the "old-age pension" project; to which, indeed, the Ministry had already tentatively committed itself. On the other hand, there was a loud demand for remissions in the heavy income tax. At the outbreak of the Boer war the British were paying 8 pence on every pound of income, a tax of slightly more than 3 per cent. In the stress of the Transvaal war the rate went as high as 15 pence. In 1903 it was reduced to 11 pence by Mr. Ritchie, but a deficit frightened his successor, Austen Chamberlain, and the rate was increased to a shiling, a tax of 5 per cent. Every successive Chancellor has admitted that the failure to remit the war buden was unfair, and all have agreed that this heavy tax is largely responsible for the declining market for British Government securities. Nevertheless, fear of another deficit has prevented action, and the present Ministry approached the problem hampered by the counter-demands of the workingmen's party. "Old-age pensions" and a reduced income tax were flatly incompatible; this was Mr. Asquith's problem. He met it by reaffirming the Ministry's belief in old-age pensions as "the most serious and urgent of all demands for social reform," but by granting for the purpose only an investment of $7,500,000 of the surplus, to be the nucleus, hereafter, of the necessary fund. To income-tax-payers, as a whole, he grants no remission, but on

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"earned incomes" of less than $10,000 a year he offers reduction from 12 pence in the pound to 9. This lower rate, it will be observed, is still above any exacted in the forty years before the Boer war; and, since it does not apply to income from investments, it may be doubted if the troubles of the "consols market" will be greatly relieved by it. Politically, however, its effect may be considerable. The British Treasury, in a statement compiled a year ago, showed that, out of some 356,000 individual assessments under the income tax, 217,000 were based on an annual income of less than £2,000. To what extent this represented incomes exclusively derived from earnings, is a matter of pure conjecture; but it is reasonable to assume that a numerical majority of the income-taxpayers will be relieved. The fact, however, that relief is so restricted, and that the Socialist element is already protesting against postponement of the promised pension legislation, suggests that Mr. Asquith will have to meet the unpleasant results which usually follow compromises that really satisfy nobody.

The agreement to submit to a joint American-Canadian commission the question of uniform fishing regulations for the Great Lakes and contiguous waters is of vital importance to an industry that on this side alone employs some seven millions of capital, and markets a product of three millions. As in other international disputes, one of the initial difficulties is that a question on which the Canadian authorities have adopted a uniform policy is here handled by the eight States bordering on the lakes in eight different ways. Some of our States have closed seasons; others, using the same waters, have none. Some are active in restocking the fisheries; others do little but catch the fish their neighbors have planted. One of the remarkable assertions made in all seriousness by a correspondent of the Chicago *Tribune* is that the fish themselves have developed an instinct to "seek refuge in Canadian waters." That is certainly evidence of our wasteful policy, from those who should know most about it.

The significant feature about the succession of strikes with which Paris has been visited of late is the comparatively small number of workmen involved. A handful of electricians, about 500 in all, were able to plunge the *Ville-Lumière* into a desolation of darkness. The threatened defection of some 2,000 bakers brought the capital for a moment face to face with partial famine. Then, too, the unfortunate Parisian has just been made miserable by a strike of café waiters. The French labor leaders seem to understand that the general public may be more incommoded by the shutting down of an electric power-house for a few days than the suspension of coal-mining or iron-forging for weeks. The ordinary strike involving tens of thousands of men has been shown repeatedly to be inefficacious. Better policy it is to fight with small but highly organized forces, and to strike at the nerve centres, so to speak, of the enemy. This plan appears to find its fullest development in the contest that is now on for the complete unionization of all branches of the Government service as the speediest means of storming the citadel of the present social order. On this point, the radical Clemenceau Ministry seems to be preparing to fight. A dispatch from Paris tells of the suspension of three postal employees who had joined in an open letter to the Premier protesting against the provisions of the proposed Ministerial bill dealing with Government employees and the right of combination. Of this letter the *Temps* declared: "It is impossible to assume a more impertinent or audacious tone." The Government's bill concedes to public employees the right of combining, for the protection of common interests, into incorporated associations, "free to appeal to the law against alleged violation of their rights by the Administration." The right to strike, however, is denied; or, what amounts to the same thing, they are refused permission to affiliate themselves with the General Confederation of Labor, whose policy, as energetically carried out by its president, M. Griffuelhes, is avowedly revolutionary. M. Clemenceau has by no means an easy task. The central committee organized for promulgating the principles of trade-unionism among Government employees, contains representatives of the "naval reserve men, municipal laborers, employees in the Government tobacco and match factories, the school teachers' union, the postmen's union, the mint, the prison guards, and the custom-house officers."

The elections to the lower house of the Spanish Cortes have resulted in an estimated majority for the Conservative Government of some 120 in a house of 431. The numerical strength of the two leading parties is nearly the reverse of what it was after the general election of 1905, in which the Liberals won an overwhelming majority, only to fritter it away in internal dissensions. In the ordinary course of events, the Maura Cabinet should now maintain itself for a year or two; and the more or less anti-clerical programme of the Liberals, including the projected Associations law and Civil Marriage bill, is, of course, indefinitely postponed. From the figures is would appear that many Liberal voters, disgusted by the anarchy within the party, have cast in their lot with the radical parties. Thus the Republicans and Catalonian Regionalists have increased from 37 in 1905 to 52, while the Carlists have risen from 3 to no less than 13. In spite of the prevailing sympathy with which the nation must supposedly be looking forward to a royal heir, the anti-dynastic influences are by no means to be overlooked.

As to the extent to which anti-Semitism enters into the recent Rumanian disturbances, there is considerable disagreement. Indeed, the whole question of the economic rôle played by the Jews in Rumania is in dispute. On the one hand, one of the leading Jewish citizens of Great Britain has denied that the Rumanian Jews have succeeded in securing control of a large portion of the land, in the capacity of middlemen, and rack-rented the peasants. But the charge is reiterated by the London *Spectator*.

> The majority of these bailiffs are clever Jews, who, armed with the whole powers of the landlords, and backed by the officials whom they "conciliate," demand double, and in some cases triple, the accustomed rents, which were already heavy; and this takes from the people—who, it must be remembered, have no alternative mode of living—the whole product of their toil beyond the barest and roughest means of subsistence, means so attenuated that they are compelled to live in rotten huts and to starve not only themselves, but their wives and children.

The case here is probably overstated, but from what we know of the important part formerly played by Jews in Poland as the lessees and managers of the estates of the nobility, it cannot be far from the truth. When we are told that university professors and students, the schoolmasters, and the professional classes have taken the lead in Jew-baiting, the suspicion arises that the Rumanian educated classes are pursuing the same tactics as those of the early Russian Nihilists under Alexander II. Then many believed that, by inciting the peasants against the Jews, the *mujik* might be aroused from his indifference and torpor to a sense of his needs and rights as against the Government. If the Rumanian Government, as seems probable, did nothing to check the anti-Semitic agitation, it acted foolishly, as events showed; for what the Russian peasant under Alexander II. could not be brought to do, namely, to turn on the government, the Rumanian peasants attempted. Russia, by this time, has learned the lesson. When Plehve stirred up the Christian against the Jew, the Tatar against the Armenian, and the Lettish peasant against his German landlord, he scarcely foresaw how soon these weapons would be turned against the throne. Anti-Semitism among the lower classes may long continue, but Jew-baiting from above must slacken, when the ruling classes recognize that it means playing with fire.

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THE MONTAGNINI LETTERS.

Apparently, they do *not* order their lying better in France. The publication of the Montagnini letters to the Vatican has led to a perfect deluge of passionate *démentis*. It reminds one of that passage in the Mémoires of Saint Simon where he speaks of his father's indignation at being slandered in a book of La Rochefoucauld's:

> My father felt so acutely the atrocity of the calumny that he seized a pen and wrote on the margin, *L'auteur a menti*. Then he went to the book store and made the same marginal note in every copy.

On March 30, the *Figaro* began printing an analysis of the 1,300 letters in the Montagnini *dossier*. They reflected gravely upon many men prominent in public life, as also upon highly placed ecclesiastics. Instantly, they all with one consent began to denounce and repudiate the statements of the former Papal Nuncio in Paris. Premier Clemenceau came out with the roundest denial of all that related to him. Ex-Minister Berteaux hastened to declare Montagnini's references to himself totally unfounded, and added:

> It is not strange that the Pope, with this sort of information, became the best collaborator of those who, like me, desired the separation of Church and state.

M. Barthou, Minister of Public Works, arraigned Montagnini as a slanderer in his case, too. So it went on. Even Catholics cried out upon the late Nuncio. M. Piou, the Parliamentary leader of the Church party, had to admit that many of Montagnini's assertions were "inexact," while the venerable Archbishop of Besançon, Monsignor Fulbert-Petit, flatly said: "All the imputations against me are calumnies." The Bishop of Tarentaise came out with a letter in which he said that Montagnini had evidently got his information, "not from real bishops, as he alleged, but from lamplighters and charwomen." Finally, a dispatch from Rome stated that letters were pouring in from France, written by "bishops, priests, laymen, great ladies," and all complaining bitterly of the way in which Montagnini had swallowed all the gossip and rumor brought to him. Yet it was largely upon the information and advice furnished by this credulous and careless agent that the Vatican founded its policy in a momentous question!

Montagnini's reports on French politics were certainly as inept as upon the attitude of the French Catholic press and the bishops. In 1906, he reported that the Government would lose forty seats in the elections; it gained more than that number. He predicted that the Separation bill would not pass the Senate; it did so easily. The most unhappy impression made by the letters is that of constant meddling in French politics by the Vatican. We have already referred to the damaging note addressed to the Archbishop of Lyons by the Papal Secretary of State, Cardinal Merry del Val. There is other matter as bad. In 1904, it was said by Montagnini: "When the moment arrives, the campaign will be resumed against Pelletan and Delcassé." In 1905, when local elections were taking place, Merry del Val wrote of the good political effects of religious persecution, which he hoped might be extended, yet he warned Montagnini to burn his letter lest the intervening of the Vatican in French politics should become known! And to this agent who is now shown to have been so incompetent and misleading, the Papal Secretary wrote, praising him for his zeal and prudence, adding, "Try to listen well, to report everything, and to talk little." It is evident that the Holy See was badly served; and the rumors that Merry del Val is to retire would seem to be warranted by what has been made public about his activities, in these Montagnini papers.

Doubtless, there are more of them to come. They were seized by the Government, at the time of the breaking off of diplomatic relations between the Vatican and France, and the expulsion of the Nuncio. The documents have been under official investigation. Nearly all the letters already published were obtained from Rome; and Premier Clemenceau, in his letters to the *Figaro*, has distinctly asserted that they were garbled, in the hope of breaking the force of the *coup inévitable* which will result when the whole are officially printed. "No one will lose anything," he added significantly, "by waiting a couple of weeks." But, even as they stand, the revelations have caused a tremendous reverberation in France. They fully confirm, what has been plainly intimated before, that the majority of the French bishops desired to accept loyally the Separation law; and show in the most painful way upon what misinformation about actual conditions the Vatican was led to act.

THE WHITELEY CASE AND THE DEATH PENALTY.

The commutation of the death sentence in the case of Horace G. Rayner to imprisonment for life has created but little less of a sensation in England than his murder of William Whiteley. Opinion is strongly divided. The *Spectator*, for instance, feels that the Home Secretary, Mr. Gladstone, acted "with insufficient reason," and that the only grounds "for respiting Rayner were sentimental, which are not only not valid reasons, but highly dangerous." On the other hand, the Liberal *Tribune* rejoices that mercy was shown, "in harmony with the spirit of Easter," and suggests that the time has now come when the general question of capital punishment should be reviewed. To this the *Spectator* replies that the commutation of the prisoner's sentence "amounts almost to an abolition" of that punishment.

Reasons of sentiment undoubtedly actuated most of the half-million persons who signed a petition for a reprieve and forwarded it to Mr. Gladstone. The story of the crime is not without its pathos. The very circumstances of Rayner's birth, if there is anything in heredity, predetermined him to a tragic ending. Drink, poverty, starvation, and the distress of mind that comes with seeing wife and child without food did the rest. That the crime was deliberate was beyond doubt; Rayner tried to blackmail Mr. Whiteley, and failing, threatened to kill himself on the spot. When Mr. Whiteley sent for the police, Rayner killed him and attempted to end his own miserable existence. That he was nursed back to health for the purpose of being hanged was to many of those who protested against his execution an especial aggravation. Finally, there were other pathetic family reasons which appealed strongly to the public. The attempt to make Rayner out insane failed when the two experts were compelled to answer a point-blank question as to whether they considered Rayner crazy. The answer "no" ended their testimony; there were no long technical squabbles, and no hypothetical questions of 13,000 words. It is obvious, therefore, that the sentimentality against which the *Spectator* protests was in no wise due to a public belief that the prisoner was mentally incapacitated.

Of course, if capital punishment is to be abolished, the grounds should be general and not special. Ethical reasons should prevail; "Thou shalt not kill" should be held to apply to states as well as to individuals. Yet, it is just such individual cases as Rayner's which seem to increase the growing feeling against the death penalty. Gen. N. M. Curtis, one of our foremost American opponents of executions, has recently told how he became a convert to the belief that the state should not kill any of its criminals. It was when serving as an officer of the Army of the Potomac that he was horrified by being paraded with his company to watch the hanging of a deserter. Yet he was himself engaged in killing some of his countrymen, and was by no means so moved when he saw whole regiments mowed down as he was by the execution of that one misguided youth. Similarly, the execution of Mrs. Rogers in Vermont a year or so ago, for the murder of her husband, caused many to apply, for the first time, the term "barbarous" to the whole proceeding. Here, too, was a criminal who had been much sinned against, yet about whose guilt there could be no doubt. Her sex added to the feeling of indignation in many hearts when the Governor brave-

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ly announced that consistently with his duty, he could not commute her sentence. The thought that many an insignificant man whose case is quite as moving as Rayner's goes to his death almost unnoticed, because there is no special feature to attract attention of the press, is also unsettling some persons, if we may judge by letters to the English newspapers.

But the great mass of men do not as yet share Montesquieu's view that "in countries remarkable for the lenity of their laws the spirit of the inhabitants is as much affected by the slight penalties as in other countries by severer punishments." When Sir Samuel Romilly sought to abolish the penalty of death for the theft of five shillings' worth of goods from a shop, Lord Eldon declared that, if this bill passed, "then may your Lordships expect to see the whole frame of our common law, invaded and broken in upon." Many humanely disposed persons are moved to apply similar language to the proposal to do away with the death penalty; and the passage, subsequent to the death of McKinley, of a statute making it a capital crime to attempt the life of a high Federal official is proof that reactions are still possible in times of popular excitement.

The question may therefore be asked, particularly in view of the Rayner case, whether the abolition of the death penalty is not likely to come quite as rapidly by way of executive remission of sentence as by direct agitation. The experience of Kansas would seem to confirm this theory. There the jails have for years past contained murderers condemned to death, but living on, because no Governor could bring himself to sign their death warrants. At the last session of the Kansas Legislature this anomaly was ended by the formal abolition of the death penalty. This step evoked no protest whatever from the general public, which was doubtless aware that those American States which have for many years abolished the death penalty have not as a result suffered from more crimes of violence.

There are still murders and executions enough in England to make it unlikely that the story of Kansas will repeat itself there; yet the yielding of the Home Secretary in the Rayner case will for a long time to come furnish ammunition to those who believe that, as has been the case for generations, the law must be made to grow more humane and more lenient. The strongest argument of those who advocate a milder punishment is that death is irrevocable. It gives the guilty man no opportunity to reform, and allows no one to aid him in developing his better side —that residuum of goodness and virtue to be found in every human breast. And if any error is committed—there are many such cases on record—it is impossible to right the wrong either to the victim or to his family.

SANITY IN LITERATURE.

The first Leslie Stephen Lecture, delivered last February at Cambridge University, and now issued by the Clarendon Press in a shilling pamphlet, is an utterance which we commend to the attention of rising authors. The lecturer, Prof. Walter Raleigh, took as his subject Samuel Johnson. He could not have made a happier choice; for Johnson was a central figure in that eighteenth-century life concerning which Leslie Stephen himself wrote so much and so sympathetically; and, more than that, Stephen prepared two admirable biographies of Johnson, one in the English Men of Letters Series and the other in the "Dictionary of National Biography." Professor Raleigh emphasized that side of Johnson's character which Stephen particularly admired—a side, we may add, which Johnson and Stephen had in common—sanity. For Johnson, in spite of certain whimsicalities and prejudices, was chiefly distinguished for what Stephen calls "massive common-sense."

Turning from the Johnson whom Boswell paints in such vivid and enduring colors, Professor Raleigh considers the Johnson who reveals himself in his own works, the Johnson of the *Rambler* and the "Lives of the Poets." Taine complained that Johnson's "truths are too true, we already know his precepts by heart"; that Johnson's writings are nothing more than a treasury of commonplaces. Professor Raleigh, however, maintains that Johnson had not, as Taine implies, a commonplace mind, but that he is undervalued because he presented the "odd spectacle of a journalist who cared passionately for truth, and nothing at all for novelty." He made no effort to surprise or startle his readers; he indulged but sparingly in the cheap luxury of paradox, because he "knew that what he had to say was no commonplace, so far as he himself was concerned. Among all his discourses on human life he utters hardly a single precept which had not been brought home to him by living experience."

But human experience is an old story. We invent new machinery of life. Hoopskirts disappear; hats and houses change from day to day; but the hearts of men and women are much the same as in the time of Homer or Job. This is why a great work of literature, a real criticism of life, though the product of an alien tongue and a distant age, is always, in its essentials, contemporary. The task of the philosopher, the novelist, and the poet of this twentieth century is not to discover new truths; for, speaking broadly, there are none. He is simply to give the everlasting verities a different guise from that of a generation ago: a few fresh words and phrases, the background of the modern world, and the work is done. Creative genius, after all, does nothing but offer us the old clay of humanity in a slightly different mould. The lines which impart an aspect of strangeness are, when examined closely, seen to be wholly superficial—merely a rearrangement of the drapery. Robinson Crusoe is Ulysses three thousand years later; Shakespeare's Romans are only Plutarch's, talking Elizabethan English.

Thus it is that the books which are freakish and morbid, aberrations from the great norm, sooner or later fall into oblivion. The brimming stream of sane and wholesome life moves on, "out of the mist and hum of that low land," overwhelming the little books which have had their success of impudence or nastiness. We do not deny, of course, that the very qualities which render a book ephemeral may make for quick notoriety and large sales. If any man—or, better still, woman—of fair ability as a writer, will put forth a book advocating polygamy or free love, the volume will be sure of wide notice in the sensational press; and every one who is ambitious to know about "the latest thing in literature" will buy or borrow a copy. A novel that barely escapes suppression under the law against obscene publications will command the suffrages of those callow youths of all ages who pose as "advanced" or "emancipated" thinkers. Any book, in fine, which is based upon the shallow theory that our conventions, customs, and laws are simply artificial and transient affairs, not the crystallized experience of millions of men through thousands of years —any such silly outgiving is foreordained to immediate popularity and ultimate oblivion.

We should not, therefore, be profoundly disturbed by the rubbish, erotic or neurotic, which is the fashion of the moment. A worthy English prelate, the Bishop of Norwich, asserts that books now read in the best English families are so immoral that they could not have been printed a few years ago. He adds that out of eighty novels recently published seventeen show that marriage is an antiquated institution, eleven set up marital infidelity as the spiritual ideal, and twenty-three are so vulgar in wording that they should not be placed on sale. The vogue of such writing, we admit, is an evidence of thoughtlessness, perhaps viciousness, in a class of society from which we might expect better things. But pornographic books have always had too large a circulation; though in the past the number of people who fed on such filth was probably larger, in proportion to the total number of readers, than it is in 1907. We must not forget that the recent enormous increase in the output of our presses and in the reading public tends

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to distort our view. In 1807, out of a total of less than eighty novels, there were probably twenty-three quite as nauseating as any now current; and in 1707, Jeremy Collier was still crusading against the dirty drama of the Restoration. But Wycherley's "Country Wife" is as dead and buried as the novels of Aphra Behn; and not one reader in ten thousand has ever heard of Lewis's "Monk," which was the target of the moralists of 1795. On the other hand, the novels of Scott survive in perennial vigor. As it has been, it is now, and ever shall be. The minds and souls of men in the mass remain sound; and inevitably they will reject the work of authors who are bent on attracting attention at any price, whether it be by wearing cap and bells or wallowing in the mire.

THE POWER OF THE DRAMA.

The Paris *Temps* contains an apparently authentic account of a literary experiment carried out recently in a village in Russia. To an assemblage of typical *mujiks*, there were read in succession "King Lear," "Hamlet," and "Othello," and all three plays succeeded in moving the peasant audience to heights of emotional transport and pleasure which their distinguished compatriot, Count Tolstoy, has lately declared himself quite incapable of attaining. With the story of "King Lear" there was no difficulty at all. The old king's senile arbitrariness and peevishness were instantly comprehended and condemned, though later his due meed of pity was not refused him. The wicked sisters were properly execrated, and Cordelia won many tears throughout the play. "Othello" was somewhat of a puzzle at the beginning, but soon seized the audience and held it to the last pitiful moment, which to many came unexpectedly. "Hamlet" was the most difficult of the three plays; the famous soliloquy had to be twice repeated before its meaning was clearly grasped, and Ophelia's conduct gave rise to varying speculations. But it is nothing less than amazing that the humble Russian audience should have hit upon the very mooted point that more intelligent Shakespearean audiences have so long debated, and immediately fallen to arguing whether Hamlet's irresolute conduct proceeded from inherent defects of character or the irresistible force of circumstances.

The incident, if true, is a good deal of a joke, both on the sage of Yasnaya Polyana and the bard of Avon. Here is Tolstoy girding at Lear's extravagances and vulgarities, denying the play the rank of high art; and yet his position is emphatically condemned by that very peasant audience whose naïve judgment he makes the standard of all æsthetic value in his "What is Art?" Would the peasants have better appreciated, let us say, Racine's "Agamemnon" or Lessing's "Nathan," because the protagonists did not go into fits of vulgar anger and address their enemies in a mixture of Isaiah and Billingsgate? We doubt it. The elemental turgidity of the play was too much like what, in coarser form, they may have very well known and experienced in person; for we may say that the manners of British royalty in the sixth century, B. C., were not very different from those of the Russian tiller of the soil to-day. And so history has its little game of irony with Shakespeare, who must appeal for justice from Prospero Tolstoy and Mercutio Bernard Shaw to an audience of his own clowns, to Touchstone and Bottom and Dogberry and, possibly, Lear's Fool.

It would be interesting to know just what process of change the Shakespearean plays were put through before they were given to the Russian peasant public. There must have been much simplification. The very translation of "Hamlet" into a foreign tongue is a step towards verbal simplicity; "there's the rub" becomes "voilà l'obstacle," and a "bare bodkin" cuts like a "petit couteau." And once you remove the occasional obscurity or ambiguity that arises from figurative style or complicated sentence structure, why should not "Hamlet" seize immediately on an uneducated bucolic audience? To appreciate the merits of the play as an acting drama, as a "thriller," one should see it on the Bowery, interpreted by a poverty-stricken Italian company, with the very rags of costume and débris of scenery. What a splendid melodrama it stood forth as scene followed scene, and laid its grip on an American audience, ignorant of Italian, by sheer force of dynamic situation and tableau! It may be a grievous thing indeed to speak of "Hamlet" as stripped of its poetry and its rhetorical splendor; but stripped is not the word; most of the play remained there, strangely enough, in the threadbare Italian, just as it must have remained in the colloquial Russian, showing conclusively that, after all, the play is the thing with which to move the conscience of peasants no less than of kings.

And is not this efficacy of the drama before a popular tribunal coming to be more generally recognized every day? We are accustomed to say that once upon a time, under the Elizabethans, the play was the unversal literary form, and that in time it was replaced by the novel. Surely, at this moment the play is struggling to regain its early supremacy. The novel of purpose seems to have had its day. Authors now prefer to preach from the stage. Is it all due to the influence of Ibsen? Possibly. But the fact remains that the world's best-known contemporary writers are the dramatists or novelists attempting the drama. Since the death of Zola, the theatre in France has had things almost all its own way, with Rostand, Donnay, Brieux, Capus, Lavedan, Mirbeau, Battaille, Fabre, and others. Contemporary German literature to the man in the street means Sudermann and Hauptmann, with an occasional novel of military scandal. Italy is just the Annunzio of the Duse plays. The reformer or the rebel instinctively turns to the stage, whether he be Gorky in "The Abyss," or Galdós in "Electra," or Shaw in everything.

Is this drift to the drama due to the higher rewards which the theatre is said to offer? Hardly; the field as compared with that of the novel is so narrow, and the chances of success are so correspondingly small, that, to the average writer, dramatic authorship should be the least tempting of all callings. But it is rather in the nature of the serious task dramatists set themselves that the cause probably lies. A novel with a purpose is well enough, but, after all, the man who wants to preach usually tries to gather a crowd. Your novel reader cannot be counted upon. He is alone in his easy chair, or in a railway car, or on some rural veranda, and who knows what mood of the moment may shape or destroy the potency of your appeal? Your theatregoer comes attuned more or less to the message that is to be conveyed. But, more than that, he presents there in company with a thousand others a much more powerful emotional medium than he would be by himself; and all of us would rather sway a symphonic orchestra than play a mere fiddle.

KEEPING ART IN ITALY.

The manœuvres of the Italian authorities and the private owners of works of art resemble a game in which it is agreed that the Government shall lose. No sooner have most of the Cattaneo Van Dycks disappeared from Genoa than the alarm changes to Ferrara, where a notable collection is under siege from Paris, the bribe being extraordinary; for the pictures are not. Then Pistoia, resentful at the loss of a handful of good pictures and a chimney-piece, decides to establish a museum to keep the dealers at bay. It should be noted that every movement of aroused civic pride is just a shade too late. For fifty years it may be said that there has been but one striking exception to the rule of shutting the stable door after the theft of the horse. The Casino Borghese, with its invaluable contents, was saved for the nation, by purchase, in the face of impending loss.

Under the new law, as under the old, the traffic has gone on apace. The statute requires that every important object should be entered in the Government inventory, and, when sold for ex-

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portation, submitted to the Central Commission of Fine Arts. As a matter of fact, this inventorying goes ahead lamely, for the excellent reason that the art treasures of Italy are ill-explored, even by the constituted authorities; whereas owners are, for obvious reasons, slow in seeking the honor of registration. The Cattaneo Van Dycks, for example, were never registered, and it is doubtful if the Government has legal recourse against the vendors. Private owners who thus evade the requirements of the law are subject either to the absolute veto of a favorable sale, or to what amounts to expropriation at a price far below the market. An American critic purchased a fragment of a Grecian frieze at 2,500 francs for a college museum. The piece was duly presented for appraisal and payment of the export duty. The Commission promptly offered half the price in behalf of a Roman museum. Without especial luck or influence, the college may be forced to choose between sale at a loss or keeping its marble indefinitely in Italy. But to do the new law justice, it does bring under the eye of the Government experts a number of objects of art which are thus purchased for the national collections on very favorable terms; but the practice has an undignified savor of confiscation, and practically only things of minor interest are thus retrieved—objects like a couple of Bellottos recently ceded to the Uffizi, the loss of which to Italy could hardly be regarded as serious. So far as the fact of the inventory discourages churches, hospitals, and similar public institutions from peddling off the remnant of their original artistic heritage, it is wholly good. No lover of Italy would willingly see its public display of art diminished. The real offence is to move pictures or sculpture from the places for which they are made. What becomes of many of them, once they have been moved, seems to us, in spite of the panic prevailing in Italy, rather a matter of indifference.

There is, in fact, an enormous and sentimental exaggeration of the importance of the vendible objects of art in Italy. Everything that could conceivably be sold might be shipped across the Alps to-morrow, yet to the average person of taste Italy would remain unchanged. The churches and public galleries are so enormously rich, the private collections relatively so little visited, that a wholesale exportation would scarcely alter the look of things. Indeed, so far as the tourist is concerned, the dear soul would never know the difference were all the private collections of Genoa, Milan, and Venice sold *en bloc*. The alarm when a chimney-piece or a minor picture is exported smacks of the pedantic. It bespeaks the antiquarianism that has ever crippled Italian criticism, rather than a truly discriminating love of art. It would be easy to show that even in the most deplored instances of sale abroad, Italy has suffered no substantial harm. The possession of the Chigi Botticelli, for example, is immensely important to us; its loss can hardly be considered grave to Italy in view of the roomful of Botticellis in the Uffizi. Even the Inghirami of Raphael, which passed from Volterra to the same Boston collection, should not be unduly mourned, since the Pitti contains a superb replica of that masterpiece. Generally speaking, Italy has lost only that in which she was immensely rich. One may heartily applaud the attempt to keep Van Dyck, in which the museums are rather poor, in the country; one may wish all success to the campaign against the dissipation of the riches of churches and other institutions; but the movement is late—the harm was done fifty and more years ago.

Guido Cagnola, the learned editor of the *Rassegna d'Arte*, suggests a reform in the administration of fine arts—to wit, a concentration of effort upon objects that are truly, in the words of the law, "of highest value" (*di sommo pregio*). Let the central authority make a minimum list of objects with which the museums cannot rightly dispense—not troubling about the rest—and then let the Government, like any honest buyer, take the refusal of such objects at a fair price. Such ordinary square dealing would make the present evasions superfluous, while the simplification of its task would make the activities of the new Central Commission of Fine Arts more dignified and useful. A minimum of interference with private property, and an honest allowance in case of expropriation, would seem to be the golden rule of the game of keeping art in any country.

We fancy that the panic, which has prevailed not only in Italy, but in England and Germany, will subside when it is perceived that there is a natural law of flux and reflux in these matters. One hears much of the American peril, but fine pictures are already being bought back from us for Europe in considerable quantities. For years England was the most dreaded purchaser, but under the inexorable conditions of economic law she has given up many of her finest pictures to France, Germany, and America. In other words, the game is an international one, and to attempt to make it less so is only to try in vain to spoil sport. By the time that the wealthy and enlightened amateurs of Milan are capturing fine Italian paintings from London, Paris, and New York, we shall hear less about keeping art in Italy.

PRESENT NEEDS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

In the present article I shall speak chiefly of the New York public schools, with which I am most familiar; but many of my arguments apply to the school systems of all our larger cities.

During the past ten years great advances have been made in public education in this city. The standard for entrance to the teaching profession has been considerably raised. Ten years ago the vast majority of the teachers had a preparation of only four years above the elementary schools—a preparation which did not usually include professional training. To-day all teachers must have had at least four years of academic and two years of professional training, or, in lieu of such training, must have had five years' successful experience in teaching, and must show by examination that they have had an education at least equivalent to that given in our high schools and training schools. Ten years ago it was difficult to obtain a position, except through political, social, or religious influence. To-day all appointments are made by competitive examination; so that political, social, and religious influence has been almost completely eliminated. There has been a corresponding improvement in the work of the elementary schools. The course of study is in line with the best scientific educational thought; the teachers, as a rule, show zeal and intelligence. Ten years ago there were no high schools in the former city of New York. During this period not only has the high school system of the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx been developed, but the high schools of Greater New York have been placed upon a basis which commands the respect of the people, and the admiration of educators throughout the world. Our high schools not only prepare for the best colleges, universities, and professional schools, but they are also preparing through specialized schools—commercial high schools, manual training high schools, and a technical high school for girls—in a most efficient way for some of the most useful productive activities. Ten years ago there were large waiting lists of pupils who could not obtain entrance. To-day all pupils of school age who apply are admitted; and, if the facilities do not allow full time for all, part-time is given. By part-time is meant instruction for three and one-half hours per day, instead of the standard day of five hours. During the current year considerably over 600,000 children will have received instruction, only about ten per cent. on part-time. Improvements in buildings have fully kept pace with other improvements. Our buildings, both in exterior beauty and in interior arrangement, are regarded as models.

These are some of the more important reforms of the past decade. While those of us who are engaged in the work may regard them with pardonable pride, we must not lose sight of the fact that many things are still wanting to make our system worthy of this great city, and able to meet all the demands of our rapidly increasing and heterogeneous population. Among the more pressing needs are the following:

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I.—SMALLER CLASSES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

At present the average number of pupils to a teacher in the elementary schools is about forty-three. Unfortunately, this average, as is generally the case with averages, is deceptive. In many outlying parts of the city, where population is sparse, the classes are small. In more densely populated sections, such as the lower East Side of Manhattan and the Brownsville district in Brooklyn, classes are very large. Some teachers have charge of fifty or even sixty pupils, and there are cases where we find sixty-five. Bad as is this state of affairs, it is a great improvement over conditions within my own recollection. I have seen the time, in Brooklyn, when there were hundreds of classes with over seventy pupils, and when even one hundred was not uncommon. While these extraordinary registers have passed away, I trust forever, the health and happiness of thousands of children are menaced in classes that have even fifty pupils. There are only 1,500 minutes in the school week. If we deduct 300 for opening exercises, recesses, and physical training, we have only 1,200 remaining for instruction. In a class of fifty, therefore, each pupil may speak or read separately for only twenty-four minutes a week, or less than five a day. It is obvious that under such conditions work cannot be thorough. One of our crying needs is for more individual instruction. In a very large class such instruction is out of the question. The reduction of all classes, so that no teacher shall have more than forty pupils—even that is not ideal—I place foremost among imperative reforms. To effect this change an expenditure of $1,500,000 per annum, for salaries of teachers at present rates, to say nothing of the cost of the new buildings for additional classrooms, would be required. When, however, we consider that a large proportion of our pupils are born abroad and cannot speak English when they enter upon school work, that the great majority of children must go to work at fourteen, and that their health, happiness, and economic value due to better education would be vastly improved, the reform would seem cheap at the price.

II.—CHANGES IN THE COMPULSORY EDUCATION LAW.

The reduction of the number of pupils to a teacher naturally brings me to consider the compulsory education law. This law, which was enacted in practically its present form about twelve years ago, now seems defective in several respects:

(1.) While it provides for the punishment of parents who do not send their children to school, it lays the penalty chiefly upon the child. The law recently adopted in Illinois follows the more reasonable plan of holding parents and guardians to a strict accountability. The difference between the effect of the New York compulsory education law and that of Illinois is shown by the number of parents fined or imprisoned during the past year. In New York the number fined was 39; imprisoned, 4. In Chicago, the number fined was 532; imprisoned, 59. It has been said that so few parents are punished in New York because police magistrates do not sympathize with the objects of the law, and, some would venture to say, fear to offend possible voters. For instance, the number of parents arrested in New York at the instance of truant officers was last year 262, while only 43 were punished. Doubtless, the assertion contains some truth. I believe, however, that the trouble lies not so much with the magistrates as with the law.

(2.) The compulsory school age is now from eight to fourteen for all children, and from fourteen to sixteen in the case of children not engaged in legal employment. I believe it would be greatly to the advantage of this community, and indeed of all communities, if the legal age were reduced to seven. Even the most zealous advocate of delayed school instruction will admit that a child's brain and body are sufficiently developed at seven to endure the strain. The recent school census shows that of children between seven and eight about 19,000 are not attending school; of children between six and seven, 33,000; between five and six, 50,000. Under our local regulations children under six, if admitted at all, must be placed in a kindergarten. It would probably not be wise to attempt to force all children between six and seven to attend school. There can be no question, however, of the wisdom of requiring children between seven and eight to attend. A year of school instruction at this critical period may mean the difference between success and failure in after life.

III.—HIGH-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

The great weakness of the public high schools is that so many students leave before graduation, particularly during the first year. For this exodus many causes are assigned. The hard necessity of earning money is undoubtedly the controlling motive with a majority. There are many others, however, to whom this reason does not apply. Some have not ability to cope with high-school studies, and naturally fall by the way. Others are bewildered for a time and too often demoralized by an atmosphere very different from that of the elementary school. In the elementary school the teacher stands close to the pupil and helps him over most of his difficulties; in the high school the teacher stands more aloof and throws the pupil more on his own resources. The latter finds the required home study exceedingly heavy. Too often, particularly in the case of the children from tenement houses, of whom we have vast numbers in our high schools, there is no spot at home for uninterrupted study. The kitchen, which is at once the dining room and living room of a large family, is the only place. Hence many such children soon become disheartened and leave. For the sake of these children I have recommended to the Board of Education that the high-school buildings should be kept open in the afternoon, and that pupils should be permitted to remain to study. Teachers of special ability should be assigned to the task of supervision and assistance. In support of this recommendation I have used the following argument:

The advantages of this plan are manifold. It will utilize the school buildings more fully than at present. It will secure to each pupil favorable conditions for study. It will enable him to obtain needed advice and assistance from those best able to give advice and assistance—his teachers. It will afford the teachers an opportunity, through private conference, to obtain an insight into the character of their pupils which they could not gain in any other way, and so will react favorably on the work of the classroom, and, lastly, it may be put into operation at a very slight cost.

Yet with all these possible advantages, there is still the great difficulty: our highly specialized schools—commercial schools and manual training schools—are not used to the best advantage. Pupils who have no natural aptitude for mechanics often go to manual training high schools, and pupils who have no natural ability in literary or scientific directions take the literary and scientific courses. The children themselves who are between fourteen and fifteen when they enter high school are, it need not be said, quite unfit to make a rational choice. In such a matter parents are often as helpless as their children. To whom, then, can these children turn for guidance in a step which has such important and far-reaching consequences? We must, I believe, call upon principals and teachers in elementary schools to assume a large share of this responsibility. The elementary course is now so arranged as to develop whatever natural talents a boy may possess. If he has shown special ingenuity in the use of tools in the shop-work class in the elementary school, he should be encouraged to go to the manual training high school. If he has evinced ability in literature he should be advised to take the regular high school course, and so on. Probably no economic waste is so great as that involved in setting people to do work for which they are not fitted. It is time, then, that the elementary teachers and supervisors took up this burden of directing their pupils.

IV.—MORE WORKSHOPS, KITCHENS, AND KINDERGARTENS.

I have said that the course of study in the elementary schools is now so arranged as to develop whatever talents a boy or girl may possess. Theoretically there are kindergartens for children under the age of six, in which a child's self-activity is directed in appropriate channels. For girls there are sewing and cooking; for boys there is workshop practice in the use of wood-working tools, and in the making of useful and ornamental articles. Unfortunately, however, not nearly all the elementary schools are provided with these equipments. They are to be found in all newer buildings, but in many older buildings they are still conspicuous by their absence. We have 549 kindergartens, but 109 schools containing children of the first-year grade are still unprovided with kindergartens; 113 grammar schools for girls have no cooking rooms, and 118 grammar schools for boys, no workshops. Obviously, then, one of the great needs is that all schools should have this equipment at the earliest possible moment. It is essential not only for the proper education of eye and hand, as well as of mind, but also for disclosure of the child's nature to himself and to his teachers. It is only when a child's talents have been discovered through the work of the elementary schools that he can make an intelligent choice of his work in the high school or that his teachers can give him sound advice.

V.—SCHOOLS FOR DEFECTIVE CHILDREN.

For some years past the Board of Education has been establishing classes for children who are mentally defective. Re-

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cently this undertaking has been reorganized, and is now proceeding along lines which will, we trust, render it highly efficient. The effort, however, to provide for children who are physically defective is still only in its infancy. We have taken over two small schools for cripples, and supplied teachers, to the great advantage of the children in these schools; and we have organized one class for cripples in a public school building. A project is now under consideration to establish a school for the deaf and dumb. We also hope at an early date to organize a school for the blind. The parents of physically afflicted children are placed in a most unfortunate position. For the training and instruction of such children there are schools in which large fees are charged. There are schools of a similar character which are purely charity organizations. The man of moderate means cannot afford to send a child to the former and he feels humiliated by sending him to the latter; and yet the child who lacks some of his physical powers has just as much right to an education as the child who has them all; indeed, he has an even better right, because through physical infirmity he has a smaller chance of making his way in the world and becoming self-supporting. It would seem, therefore, to be the duty of the public school authorities to make ample provision for children who are suffering from physical infirmities. Otherwise such children are denied the right secured to them by the State Constitution—the right to an education at the expense of the State.

VI.—PHYSICAL EXAMINATIONS.

Up to a comparatively recent date the Health Department of the city, in its examinations of school children, confined its energy to the detection of contagious disease, and to the temporary exclusion of pupils suffering from such disease. Except in Manhattan, the work of the Health Department in the schools is still so limited. When Dr. E. J. Lederle was commissioner of health a beginning was made in the examination of children in Manhattan to discover defects which retard physical development and intellectual progress. Under Dr. Thomas Darlington this work has been continued and extended. During the year 1906, 78,401 children were examined; and the following are some of the results:

No. of cases of bad nutrition	4,921
No. of cases of enlarged anterior glands	29,177
No. of cases of enlarged posterior glands	8,664
No. of cases of chorea	1,380
No. of cases of cardiac disease	1,096
No. of cases of pulmonary disease	737
No. of cases of skin disease	1,553
No. of cases of deformed spine	424
No. of cases of deformed chest	261
No. of cases of deformed extremities	550
No. of cases of defective vision	17,928
No. of children of defective hearing	869
No. of children of defective nasal breathing	11,314
No. of children of defective teeth	39,597
No. of children of deformed palate	831
No. of children of hypertrophied tonsils	18,306
No. of children of posterior nasal growths	9,438
No. of children of defective mentality	1,857

The total number found to require medical or surgical treatment was 56,259, out of 78,401 examined. The great majority requiring treatment were among those backward in studies, from one to five years behind the grade to which, on account of age, they would naturally belong. Experience has amply demonstrated that when a child is intractable or deficient, and is at the same time suffering from a removable physical cause, the removal of that cause almost immediately works a wonderful change, both in deportment and ability. If any way could be devised by which all children suffering from the maladies reported by the Health Department could have proper medical and surgical treatment, not only would such children be enormously benefited, but the present school facilities could be utilized to much better advantage. In all the tenement-house neighborhoods the schools are congested by children who are away beyond the normal age for their grades. Any plan that would advance these children more rapidly would add enormously to the seating capacity of our schools, and enable us to reduce the size of classes. I have recommended to the Board of Education two plans for at least partly relieving these bad conditions: (1) The establishment of lunch-rooms in which simple and nutritious food would be sold at cost price, because malnutrition is indubitably the original cause of most of the physical defects; (2) the furnishing of eye-glasses to children of defective vision. The latter suggestion is now under consideration by the Board of Education. It seems folly to supply books to children who cannot read them or to place children in classrooms when they cannot see what is written or drawn on the blackboard. If the sight is defective, the child is hopelessly handicapped. The expenditure of a few thousand dollars for glasses would enable thousands of children who are now unable to do their school work to stand on the same level with their fellows.

The argument is frequently advanced that the furnishing of eye-glasses and the provision of medical and surgical attendance should be left to parents. Unfortunately, however, only a small percentage of the parents whose children are suffering have taken the necessary action. For instance, fifty boys were recently examined in one of our truant schools; thirty-three were suffering from physical defects which were retarding their progress and were probably the cause of the restlessness that had led to truancy. In every instance the parents were requested to have the necessary operations performed, and were told of hospitals and dispensaries in which these operations could be performed without expense in case they could not afford to pay. In only one case was the advice taken. The other boys continue to suffer. They are being punished for truancy for which they are not morally responsible; they are prevented from using the advantages which the city provides. Their usefulness in after life will be seriously impaired; in all probability many of them will become criminals; and yet it is reasonably certain that a slight surgical operation would change their whole course of life and set them on the high road to health and happiness. De Quincey in his incomparable autobiographical sketches, shows how a brutal beating inflicted upon his gifted brother at school drove him forth a wanderer on the face of the earth: and how he himself, through lack of a dose of calomel at a critical moment, was estranged from his family, and so weakened in his will power that he became the most renowned of all the victims of opium. So small a thing may affect in childhood the life of a human body and soul.

I have stated that the examinations for physical defects made by the Department of Health are conducted only in Manhattan. That Department has not yet found means to conduct similar examinations in the Bronx, Brooklyn, Queens, and Richmond. Enough has been done, however, to show that such examinations should be made regularly and thoroughly, and that some means should be adopted to cure the defects discovered. I raise the question whether the examination for physical defects, as distinguished from the examination for contagious disease, should not be placed under control of the Board of Education with sufficient funds to make the work general and effective.

VII.—MORE MONEY.

All of the projects described above will require considerable money. A bill now before the Legislature provides that over $6,000,000 per annum, in addition to what is already paid the teachers, shall be devoted solely to increasing their salaries. I have always stood for liberal pay for teachers. I believe that the time has come when the salaries should be raised. If, however, this mandatory legislation is passed, it will inevitably mean that money for necessary improvements and necessary equipment will not be forthcoming, because the budget for salaries will be so large. The interests of the children demand that not all of the possible increase shall go into the pockets of the teachers.

WILLIAM H. MAXWELL.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

The first printed account of the settlement on James River, made in April, 1607, the three hundredth anniversary of which is now being celebrated, was a thin quarto by John Smith, "A True Relation of such occurrences and accidents of noate as hath hapned in Virginia," London, 1608. It was probably a letter, as it begins "Kinde Sir," but to whom it was addressed is not now known. It gives an account of affairs in the colony from the first landing, April 26, 1607, to June 2, 1608. It was entered at Stationers Hall on August 13, 1608, by "John Tappe, printer and William Welby bookseller at the sign of the Greyhound, in Paules Churchyard." It is a book of great rarity; and among the few copies known there are no less than four varieties. These do not represent four distinct editions, but show only that the title-page was four times printed. The one which seems to be the earliest issue states that the "Relation" was "Written by a Gentleman of the said Collony"; the second issue was "Written by Thos. Watson, Gent."; the third was "Written by Captaine Smith one of the said Collony"; and the fourth was "Written by Captaine Smith Coronell of the said Collony." Some copies have two pages of preface lacking in others. This preface "To the Courteous Reader" is signed "I. H.," probably the editor's initials. In it he says:

Some of the bookes were printed under the name of Thomas Watson, by whose occasion I know not unlesse it were the over rashnesse, or mistaking of the workmen, but since having learned that the saide discourse was written by Captaine Smith, who is one of the Counsell there in Virginia: I thought good to make the like Apollogie.

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It therefore seems likely that the two earlier issues are perfect without the leaf of Preface, but that the two forms with Smith's name on the title-page, are imperfect without it. Twelve copies are known. The Lenox Library has three copies, the first, third, and fourth varieties; the British Museum, two, both with the Watson title; the New York Historical Society, two; the John Carter Brown Library, Harvard University, and the Boston Public Library, each one. The last mentioned brought $570 in the Barlow sale in 1890. The Deane copy, which brought $1,450 on March 31, 1898, is in a private library in New York, and presumably the Ouvry-Kalbfleisch-Lefferts copy is also in private hands.

Bertram Dobell, the London bookseller, has printed an interesting "Catalogue of Books Printed for Private Circulation." This class of books, the circulation of which is restricted to the friends of the authors, or to a limited number of subscribers, has not yet received much attention from bibliographers. The only important work in English, Martin's "Catalogue of Books Privately Printed," which includes, also, the publications of literary societies, was first issued in 1834, a second edition appearing twenty years later. Such books are, as a class, extremely difficult to trace, or to assemble. Mr. Dobell's list includes only books which he has owned himself during the last twenty years. He lists numerous books printed before 1854, which were unknown to Martin, but the major part of his two thousand or more titles are books printed since the last edition of Martin. Besides the title and collation, there is for almost every item an interesting note, telling something of the book and its contents. Although Mr. Dobell at one time owned those two little plays for which Thackeray furnished the illustrations, "King Glumpus," 1837, and "The Exquisites," 1839, they are not included; nor does he mention any of the privately printed Tennyson booklets, the most important of which was "The Lover's Tale," 1832. Mrs. Browning's first publication, "The Battle of Marathon," of which fifty copies were printed in 1820 by her father, is another rare volume, which might have been included. The only American book which we have noticed (although there may be a few others) is Henry M. Field's "History of the Atlantic Telegraph, to the Return of the Expedition of 1865," New York, 1866, an edition which is not mentioned by Sabin. The first American privately printed book is by John Eliot, the translator of the Bible into Indian, Cambridge, Marmaduke Johnson, 1665. It is a small sixteenmo of thirty-eight pages, with a title, too long to transcribe in full: "Communion of Churches by the Ordinance of Councils, Constituted in Order According to the Scriptures." Only three copies are known: One, uncut, with manuscript notes in the margins, supposed to be by Eliot himself, which brought $155 in the Menzies sale, November, 1876, is now in a private library in New York; Brinley's copy, which brought $110, March, 1879, is now in the Lenox Library; the third copy is in the Bodleian.

On April 29, the Merwin-Clayton Sales Company of this city offers a miscellaneous collection, containing an unusual lot of about one hundred and sixty volumes of American poetry, mostly by minor authors. An especially interesting volume is the copy of George W. Kendall's "Narrative of the Texan Santa Fé Expedition," which the author presented to Charles Lever, with the autograph inscription saying that he "had beguiled many hours of imprisonment" in a Mexican hospital "by perusing and reperusing Charles O'Malley.'" On May 1, 2, and 3, they sell a collection containing an extensive series of Lincolniana. A copy of W. D. Howells's first book, "Poems of Two Friends," Columbus, 1860, is included.

Correspondence.

ENTRANCE ENGLISH REQUIREMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: From one source and another much adverse criticism has been directed against the syllabus in English of the College Entrance Examination Board and against the papers set upon this syllabus. Particular fault has been found with the lists of books prescribed for reading and for study. That they please no one is to be expected. The discontent is due to the way in which these lists are made. To prepare them, delegates from our leading educational organizations meet every few years. Each delegate brings to the convention an ideal of his own. Those of a practical turn would like a college entrance requirement, the preparation for which would supply directly the immediate needs of students of the community which they represent. Hence the views of delegates from large cities offer a marked contrast to those of delegates from the country. Representatives from schools, most of the pupils of which pass after graduation into college, aim at a course such as will fit closely into that of the freshman year. Other teachers look for books affording a rich fund of general information. Others still wish books around which can be woven a history of the English language and literature. Others again desire lists offering the largest possible number of representative literary types. Then, too, one teacher prefers a small number of books, each worthy of close study; whereas another demands a larger number suitable only for discursive reading. Obviously, views so divergent can be combined in no one requirement. The result is—and under like circumstances always will be—a compromise that in its entirety pleases no one, and that fits with exactness the needs of no locality. Faulty as the present College Entrance Examination Board's lists may appear, they are, nevertheless, a fair patchwork of the opinions of teachers the country over.

The foregoing statements account for the absence from the lists of many books for which there may be a local demand, and for the inclusion of others against which sharp criticism has recently been directed. The absence of certain books should, however, embarrass no one; for the board urges teachers to introduce their classes to much literature entirely outside the minimum requirements for examination. As a matter of fact, such reading is largely carried on in our best secondary schools, not merely through the school library or public library, but as regular class work. In some institutions pupils read thirty books or more over and above those required.

As to a number of the books that have come in for strong condemnation, the criticism arises from an incomplete realization of the task facing the teacher of English. For example, the De Coverley Papers, in the *Spectator*, the "Vicar of Wakefield," the "Rape of the Lock," and Burke's "Speech on Conciliation" are censured as lacking in appeal to the primary emotions—as devoid of strength and vitality. Now, experience shows that under the guidance of able teachers, pupils do get from these books much of value. The worth of a book lies not alone in its immediate appeal, due to its richness in images, its absorbing and voluptuous qualities. While making no such claim upon the fugitive interests of the young, a book may yet commend itself to class use by reason of its important array of facts, its structure, its style, its eminence among books of a certain type, its noble lessons. In one way or another, each of the acknowledged masterpieces named above contributes its share to the mental and spiritual uplift of our pupils. Teachers of English are concerned not so much with catering to the present tastes of their pupils as with equipping them for their ultimate life needs. Only by means of literature of proved worth can an even partially successful struggle be waged against the prevailing taste for the evanescent, the flashy, and vulgar periodical and journalistic literature of the day. Thousands of boys and girls of our secondary schools have no opportunity to browse in a substantial "father's library." But a small percentage will ever receive further formal instruction. It is of these, not of the privileged few who will attend college, that the teacher must think. The comparatively few books read in school must, then, serve the pupil as standards for future guidance. Through contact with them, he must be enabled later in life, in some small way, to select for his reading what is good, to reject what is bad, and to form judgments about what he himself writes along serious lines. Moreover, from them he must derive his sole knowledge of many of the bare facts of life and of many of the basic elements of the civilization of England and of America.

A word remains to be said in reply to the objections raised against a certain type of question set by the College Entrance Examination Board. The charge is made that examinees cannot successfully cope with questions calling for a knowledge of character portrayal, because the ability to frame adequate answers is beyond the power of the trained adult. Therein critics err. It is entirely possible for any adult with a good modern high-school training to answer such questions after a fresh perusal of the book upon which the questions are set. In the second place, that sort of question is entirely proper. The distinguishing feature of many, if not of most, great novels and plays is portrayal of character. It is, therefore, an essential part of an English teacher's work, to study with his class the subject of character development. Not to do so, would be to ignore an author's initial purpose. If such be a proper phase of instruction, why should questions upon character be barred from the examination

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paper? Behind the objections seems to lie the idea that an examination paper must present only topics upon which pupils can write in a facile and interesting manner. This would be a narrow ideal for an examination framed with regard to prevailing tendencies in this country. Unfortunate though it be, it is nevertheless a fact that the general character of work done in schools is determined largely by the examinations the pupils must ultimately face. Were the tests to demand only a bare acquaintance with the main features of the books, pupils would give little attention to work in English. With big classes, with inadequate facilities for meeting the needs of the individual, with a constantly increasing foreign element to instruct, with an intensified curriculum operating side by side with growing pressure to "pass up" as many pupils as possible, and with a multiplication of extra-scholastic forms of activity, the teacher of English has his hands full to get even mediocre results. This being so, it is difficult to see how under a uniform system of examinations a better kind of test can be devised.

As a new subject in the high-school curriculum, English instruction is still in the experimental stage. Whatever help can be given toward framing the ideal course of study and the ideal examination will be most welcome. In place of mere destructive criticism those who have so freely discussed the syllabus and examination papers of the College Entrance Examination Board are, therefore, urged to lend constructive aid (a) by opening up the whole question of the advisability of uniformity; or (b) by suggesting a uniform list of books to be acceptable to all; or (c) by suggesting a new type of examination paper, such as shall at once lend itself to easy, graceful writing, shall demand of pupils an all-around training, and shall preclude the evils of "cram" preparation.

THEODORE C. MITCHILL.

Boys' High School, Brooklyn, April 10.

FREEDOM OF SPEECH IN THE SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For some ten years now certain publicists of the South, supported by the best of Northern journals, and not a few Southern leaders of thought, have waged a ceaseless warfare for freedom of speech. Justification and apology for such work are hardly necessary when one remembers how many and what serious obstacles were, and still are, in the way. The South accustomed itself to denying this essential condition of democratic government during the days of slavery; and the presence of the negro among us even now reconciles many to this abnormal state of things. Younger Southerners, teachers especially, have recognized that the restoration of absolute freedom of speech and of the press is the first step toward the emancipation of our section from the trammels of a bygone age. The opening of college halls to men who represent opposing sides of important questions, the fair and frank discussion in college classes of even the "forbidden subject" of possible race amalgamation, and the publication of magazines and newspaper articles have been the forms of this work. E. Gardner Murphy of Alabama, the late Chancellor Hill of Georgia, Prof. Andrew Sledd of Florida, and Prof. John Spencer Bassett of North Carolina have been the leaders of this younger school of Southerners. They have done the South and the country a service which ought not soon to be forgotten, for whether the negro problem is any nearer a settlement or not, they have taught us to reason dispassionately about a subject which lies close to the heart of every intelligent and patriotic man.

A little more than ten years ago public schools for all were not popular in the older Southern States, such, for example, as Virginia and the Carolinas. Some twenty years ago a young man from Baltimore, fresh from the German universities, Edward E. Sheib by name, began in Louisiana an agitation for better public schools, and for the training of public teachers by professional pedagogists. He canvassed the State county by county, and aroused an enthusiasm and zeal which spread to other States, and ere long touched the whole South. Masterly men like Drs. Alderman and McIver crystallized this zeal for improvement into permanent forms. The administration of the Peabody funds was all the while available, and everywhere used with such wisdom that it was not difficult for outside philanthropists to organize in the fulness of time the so-called Ogden movement. The colleges which had, as a rule, held aloof now mobilized their forces and contributed to the new cause speakers and leaders whose names are known throughout the land. Incalculable good has been done. Wealthy men have been induced to contribute to the necessary funds, and Southern schools and colleges have been put on a new footing; every educator of this great section of our common country faces the future with confidence. Universal education is now popular; compulsory school laws no longer produce hideous nightmares in the minds of country legislators. Thus a second barrier to our progress has been broken down.

The great democratic churches, the Methodist and the Baptist, have felt the force of these new teachings. Religious papers have ceased to demand a rigid adherence to outworn creeds; heresy hunting is no longer a popular occupation; men of the most liberal views on matters of creed now occupy the first pulpits of the South; witness the Rev. W. M. Vines of Norfolk, Va., and Dr. John E. White of Atlanta, Ga. At the last general meeting of the Southern Methodist Church in Birmingham the liberal movement within this powerful organization took form. A committee was appointed after a most encouraging debate to restate the beliefs of the Church in such a way as to bring its dogmas into harmony with the best thought of the age. The more conservative churches, the Episcopal and the Presbyterian, though taking no public stand, are not less profoundly responsive to the modern spirit. It is with increasing difficulty that a heretic can be brought to trial, though in outward form these, as well as the other great communions, are truly conservative, slow to put on the new raiment.

But while these strongholds of retrogression have been taken, others have been erected which cover just as dangerous and even more insidious attacks upon individual and community liberty. For more than forty years the South has welcomed the incoming capitalist. Realizing what a power she exerted on national affairs when four million slaves were but concentrated wealth, the South has since 1865 offered every possible inducement to capital from the East and from Europe. Monopolies of many kinds have been freely voted by unsuspecting Legislatures. The result is a newer and milder form of slavery. The beneficiaries of many concessions have wormed their way into the steering committees of the two great political parties, have found places on college boards of control, and now threaten both legislator and teacher who speak the truth about their doings. In Virginia the names of four railway counsellors of high rank appear on the roll of the executive committee of the Democratic party; in North Carolina the American Tobacco Company was able to name the delegates to the last Republican National Convention; and in order to break the hold of J. P. Morgan on Georgia the radical wing of the Democratic party felt constrained to appeal once again to the ever-present race hatred.

Thus while we go forward with one foot we are drawn backward with the other. College faculties and other groups of influential men speak freely enough on the race question and violate the terms of antiquated creeds but never a word of criticism, at least in the old South, against the new industrial slavery which is gradually taking the place of negro servitude. A college president of good standing recently said, "Well, people may say what they choose about the encroachments of corporations, I, for one, shall not discuss the subject." In two large State institutions with which the writer is acquainted scarcely any interest whatsoever is manifested in election contests. One professor said outright that he did not agree with the party in power but it was not safe for him to vote his convictions. There is not in all the Southern States, between the Potomac and the Mississippi, a chair of political science; and the interest in sound instruction on political subjects is so weak that there is no agitation anywhere for the establishment of such departments. And instead of encouraging advance along these lines the so-called Ogden influence indirectly discourages it. Not one of the colleges that has profited by this new movement, not one whose officials affiliated with Mr. Ogden and his board, has done anything to encourage freedom of speech on economic subjects. An excellent institution whose faculty lays especial emphasis on the utmost freedom of opinion on the race question has never said a word about the scandalous bribery and tyrannical conduct of certain great corporations operating under its very nose. The editor of a particularly able Southern magazine recently refused to publish an article from one of its regular contributors; the rejected manuscript was an arraignment of present industrial abuses in the South.

The General Educational Board of New York and the subsidiary Southern Education Board proclaim the greatest freedom of speech; but none of their members, with the notable exceptions of Albert Shaw and George F. Peabody, and none of their supporters in the South have ever found it possible to condemn publicly the methods of

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Mr. Rockefeller, their great benefactor. This is distinctly discouraging to those who have hoped still for better things, who even now wage a steady warfare against backwardness and deeply entrenched tradition. How can we ever bring our people to the highest level of civilization, to real productivity in statesmanship, in letters and the arts, when a great field of activity is closed against investigation on the part of college men, when colleges unanimously decline to entertain any opinions on these subjects. If one great theme is tabooed why not the others? And if Southern colleges fear to speak their minds or fail to find their voices, who will take the lead toward the complete and more perfect freedom?

These are Southern conditions; in calling attention to them the author does not mean to imply that Northern colleges are freer from the blighting influence of special interests. Indeed, it would seem that we have no such thing as academic freedom in America, and there are not a few who openly assert that such is the case. But in the old South, where such remarkable changes are taking place and where complete freedom of discussion is so absolutely essential in the face of extraordinary difficulties, it does seem that all our forces making for progress might be united in the great cause.

WM. E. DODD.

Randolph-Macon College, Ashland, Va., April 15.

THE HYPOTHETICAL QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is not the time ripe for the attentions of thoughtful men, and in particular members of the legal profession, to be directed to the abuses of the "hypothetical question?" In theory the question is a valuable tool. Its purpose is to spread before the medical expert in an abstract form, wholly divested of complicity, or such extraneous matter as would tend to sway the emotions or on the other hand develop a bias, certain essential conditions that have been proved to exist in the case before the court. Based upon this array of facts, in conjunction with his special knowledge, the medical expert is expected to produce "an opinion." It has developed into custom and is ordinarily expected that this opinion be delivered without delay.

Though it is true that the verdict of the jury should be derived from the consideration of facts; yet as the opinion of the expert is of necessity on matters upon which judge, jury, and counsel have little or no knowledge, and is submitted for the purpose of illuminating a subject that would otherwise remain obscure, it follows that the "hypothetical question" (and its answer, the "opinion" of the expert) is in truth part of the assets upon which the jury must draw in formulating its verdict, and should be as scientifically accurate, as concise and as simple, as is feasible under the inherent difficulties of the situation. From this obviously sane point the "hypothetical question" has been permitted to roam a great distance. As a matter of fact, it often serves as an occasion for browbeating on the part of counsel, and its practical effect is usually to obscure the main scientific issue by extravagant intricacies of verbosity. As a choice example, the press credits W. T. Jerome, in the current Thaw trial, with a "question" which consumed one hour and eighteen minutes in the reading.

In addition to the brow-beating, above noted, it is not to be denied that only too often the purpose of the "question" is not to arrive at definite and scientific conclusions; but, violently wrested from its rightful sphere, it is employed to confuse and befuddle the witness into committing himself to categoric statements, to be later shown either conflicting or impossible. Though the witness is privileged to demand a clear exposition of each part of the question, yet the fact remains that the artificial atmosphere generated by counsel and only too frequently permitted by the presiding judge, tends to invalidate the opinion and throw discredit on the man who demands explanation or time for consideration. Nor is the recent statement of a personal friend, a learned ex-judge—"so far as that goes, doctor, *the expert witness is expected to be qualified to answer these hypothetical questions without delay, for the reason that he is an expert*"—beyond criticism. For a fool can ask in five minutes what a wise man cannot answer in five hours; and it is common knowledge that, according to a universal and time-honored custom, attorneys reserve the right to "consult the authorities" and withhold "an opinion" until adequate consideration of these sources has been acquired.

My colleagues may be flattered by the delicacy of such a compliment and the knowledge of the esteem in which their opinion is held by members of the legal profession. But the delicacy would be enhanced and truth and justice be more surely attained if the "questions" were employed solely for legitimate ends, and the ideas of counsel clothed in a becomingly modest verbiage, free from an assumption of profundity that presses hard the pronouncements of a Mary Baker Eddy. At present the expert offers judge and jury practically nothing of value, and his evidence is regarded but lightly.

The truth is that the system of expert medical testimony, as employed in our courts to-day, is non-scientific and wholly inconclusive, and should be subjected to immediate and drastic alteration.

NORVELLE WALLACE SHARPE.

St. Louis, April 11.

VITTORIA COLONNA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your notice of Mrs. Jerrold's "Vittoria Colonna," in your issue of April 11, recalls an interesting article on Vittoria Colonna attributed to T. A. Trollope and published in a cheap reprint entitled "Lives of Celebrated Women." The article perhaps impressed me unduly because of my lack of knowledge of the subject, but it certainly presents a very clear and concise account of the life of the poetess and introduces several selections from her sonnets written in memory of her husband, giving them in the original and also in good translation. Then the writer passes on to her religious sonnets, giving selections from them in the same way and taking a broad-minded and philosophic view of the religion and politics of the distinguished woman who was not censured by the Church for her Protestant poetry and who did not feel obliged to leave the Church for having written into her sonnets doctrine for which fellow reformers were condemned and went into exile.

I should be glad to learn how Trollope's sketch is valued by others acquainted with the subject. S. W. HATHEWAY.

Boston, April 17.

AN EARLIER TIRYNS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Readers of the *Nation* will doubtless be interested in the announcement which has just reached me from Nauplia that Dr. Dörpfeld, who has been making further excavations at Tiryns this spring, has found an older, prehistoric city on that site underneath the one which Schliemann excavated. The newly-discovered city had none of the extensive system of galleries and fortifications which are most characteristic of the later city. In this particular at least it would seem to approach the Cretan palaces at Cnossus and Phæstus. Naturally not much is yet known about "Tiryns I.," but archæologists will hope that the excavations, which cannot be completed this year, will soon be resumed for the light the discoveries may be expected to throw on the relations existing between the Minoan and the Mycenæan States.

OLIVER M. WASHBURN.

The University of Chicago, April 20.

Notes.

J. D. M. Ford, just appointed to the Smith professorship of Romance languages at Harvard, is writing the volume on "The Novel" for Prof. W. A. Neilson's Types of English Literature Series, to be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Macmillan Company has in press two more volumes of Lord Acton's remains, edited by the Rev. J. N. Figgis and R. V. Laurence.

Fleming H. Revell Company will soon have ready for publication a volume of sermons by Dr. Charles F. Aked, to be called "The Courage of the Coward."

In January of next year the faculty of the Harvard Divinity School will issue the first number of a quarterly magazine to be called the *Harvard Theological Review*. It will be edited by Profs. G. F. Moore, W. W. Fenn, and J. H. Ropes. The necessary support comes from a bequest of the late Miss Mildred Everett, who thus carries out a plan suggested by her father, Prof. C. C. Everett.

With the publication this week of the fifth volume of Plato in the Oxford Classical Texts, Prof. J. Burnet accomplishes a task that no one has undertaken since Stallbaum edited the complete works forty years ago.

The Wyclif Society, founded twenty-five years ago by Dr. F. J. Furnivall, F. D. Matthew, and the late Prof. Montagu Burrows, makes an appeal for funds to complete its edition of the reformer's works. All communications should be addressed to the secretary, Miss Dorothy G. Matthew, No. 56 Fellow Road, London, N. W.

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The Buffalo Historical Society is preparing a volume of the letters and writings of President Fillmore, and desires information in regard to any MSS. which may be used for this purpose. Fillmore was one of the organizers and first president of the society.

In December, 1897, a loan exhibition of rare articles of historic interest was held at the residence of the Misses Baldwin in Bangor, Me., and among the pieces was the manuscript of "The Revolutionary Journal of Col. Jeduthan Baldwin." The De Burians, a society of bibliophiles of Bangor, have now published the Journal in excellent form, with a memoir of the writer and illustrative notes. The previous publications of the club, we may say, were "Peter Edes—Pioneer Printer in Maine, with His Diary while a Prisoner by the British in Boston just after the Battle of Bunker Hill," and "Moses Greenleaf—Maine's First Map-Maker, His List of Indian Place Names, and a Bibliography of the Maps of Maine." Col. Baldwin was at Ticonderoga and thereabouts during the contest with Burgoyne, and the most interesting portion of his Journal deals with that period.

Early in the summer the Burrows Brothers Company will reissue their "Lincoln-Douglas Debates." The new volume will be more convenient in format and lower in price.

Volumes xi. and xii. of the "Complete Works of Abraham Lincoln" bring to an end a notable undertaking for a new publishing house, Francis D. Tandy Company. The eleventh volume, besides the latest of Lincoln's own writings, contains the long Bibliography compiled by Daniel Fish; the twelfth is made up of an Anthology of brief paragraphs from the letters and speeches, followed by Chronological and General Indexes. We have already called attention to the excellences of this edition, and need not now be specific. Since Lincoln's works were first published by Messrs. Nicolay and Hay in 1894, much new material has come to light, and this has been incorporated into the body of the present volumes. The text throughout has been so far as possible printed in accordance with the MSS. The first volume opens with Richard Watson Gilder's essay on "Lincoln as a Writer," which serves as a suitable introduction, and the other volumes contain a selection of memorable speeches and papers on the President. A notable feature of the work is the large number of portraits of Lincoln. Altogether, this Gettysburg edition takes its place worthily among the great editions of our statesmen.

Old newspaper correspondence is, in general, a most unpromising dish to be warmed over; and the two volumes of the "Memoirs of 'Malakoff'" (London: Hutchison & Co.) do not constitute an exception. They are made up almost entirely of the letters written from Paris to the New York *Times*, during the reign of Napoleon III., by the late William Edward Johnston, and edited by his son, Professor R. M. Johnston. Here and there an interesting passage can be found, but as a whole it is a very ordinary correspondence, of which the dry bones cannot, at this late day, be made to live.

"Mexico's Treasure-House (Guanajuato)," by Percy F. Martin, is published by the Cheltenham Press, New York, and is a full account, with many illustrations, of the mines of a region which has been pronounced more "thoroughly mineralized" than any equal portion of the globe. The description is technical and highly detailed. Perhaps the most suggestive parts of the volume are those which tell of the new methods, mostly devised by Americans, to draw fresh wealth from the old workings.

Leslie Stephen's "English Literature and Society in the Eighteenth Century," the Ford Lectures for 1903, has been issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons in their uniform edition of Stephen's works. The book was reviewed at length in the *Nation* of April 14, 1904, when it first appeared. The lectures, we may remind our readers, do not exhibit Stephen at his best. The subject was one with which he was thoroughly familiar; it afforded him opportunity for many passages of shrewd comment and keen analysis. And yet the whole is not so thoroughly knit together and so happily phrased as the work of his prime. For one thing, the lectures never received his final revising touch. Failing health made it impossible for him to undertake "the task of serious correction," or even of delivery. His nephew, Herbert Fisher, read them. Had Sir Leslie gone over the proofs with his usual care he would not have spoken (p. 117) of "the lecture which Henry Tilney in 'Mansfield Park' delivered to Catherine Morland." The novel should be "Northanger Abbey."

The old black-letter ballads have an interest, and even charm, which is quite independent of any literary value—to which, indeed, very few of them can lay claim. Typography, titles, the rude woodcuts which often accompany them—all are equally quaint, and not less so is the treatment of the varied matters with which they are concerned—murders, monstrous births, contemporary public events, religious exhortation, etc. A valuable addition to this form of popular literature is the volume which has just issued from the Clarendon Press (Henry Frowde), entitled "The Shirburn Ballads, 1585-1616," edited by Andrew Clark, honorary fellow of Lincoln College, from the manuscript in the library of the Earl of Macclesfield, at Shirburn Castle, Oxfordshire. The manuscript originally contained 257 leaves, of which about 100 have been lost, but even what remains makes up, as the editor remarks, "a singularly representative collection, embracing ballads of almost every type in circulation, and so presenting us with just the library which was found in most English households in Shakespeare's time." The pieces were evidently all transcribed in the early seventeenth century from the printed copies known as broadsides, and the majority of them have already appeared in the "Roxburghe Ballads," but even of these we have often in the present collection earlier and better texts; and, on the other hand, some of the best are printed here for the first time. Perhaps the greatest importance of the collection is that it bridges over the gap in ballad-literature between the early ballads as represented by Prof. F. J. Child's monumental work and those of the post-Restoration period. One may note among the new pieces some that have a distinct literary value, as, for instance, No. 13, entitled "The Golden God Hyperion," a charming Elizabethan pastoral, which, like No. 28, Dyer's "My Mind to Me a Kingdom Is," we suspect had originally no place in the literature of the ballad-singers. Two or three of the ballads which are of interest to Shakespearean scholars, such as that on the story of Titus Andronicus or the one on Jephthah's daughter (quoted in "Hamlet"), have already appeared in print. Mr. Clark, however, fails to note that in No. 65 we have at last the "old madrigal" long ago conjectured by Malone to explain Orlando's phrase, "Wit, whither wilt," in "As You Like It." The editor has reproduced the manuscript text practically without changes. He has, moreover, prefixed to each ballad explanatory notes, and in his general introduction he has set forth the conditions under which ballads were composed and circulated in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Finally, several interesting ballads of the same character as those in the Shirburn manuscript are added in an appendix from a Bodleian manuscript, viz., Rawlinson poet. 185.

In "The English Factories in India" (New York: Henry Frowde), William Foster continues for the years 1618-1621 the publication of the documents which have become familiar in the six volumes of "Letters Received by the East India Company from Its Servants in the East." Sir Thomas Roe, who wanted to go home in February, 1618, was persuaded to stay another year, for he found favor in the sight of Jahangir; he was a Joseph in the court of Pharaoh, for whose sake all his nation there seemed to fare the better. He developed a trade with Surat in the Persian Gulf beyond Ormuz, and with Mocha just inside the mouth of the Red Sea, where spices from the Bantam factory and cottons from India could be sold to the merchants from Egypt; who frequented the pilgrim ports. In these regions the Portuguese had been exacting from native junks heavy sums for protection and for permission to sail the high seas. This went against the grain of a good Englishman like Roe. He would rather take as prize a junk or two and make the natives look to the English as their protectors. "By this course wee shall hinder and bridle the Portugall of his profitts and force him to some composition with us, when hee sees wee beginn soe round a course." And he would act at once on this policy, "els the Duch wilbe beforehand and do it first, and then hee wilbe the brave man." Eastward of Cape Comorin it was the Dutch, rather than the Portuguese, who gave the English the most trouble:

> They wrong you in all parts and grow to insufferable insolences. You must speedelye looke to this maggatt; els, wee talke of the Portugall, but these will eate a woorme in your sides (p. 17).

Sir Thomas Dale, known for his energy and firmness in Virginia, was sent to the Spice Islands in 1618 with six vessels to teach the Dutch manners, but without success. He soon returned to India, and died there in August, 1619, "after maney testemoneys of good Christianety." It is not so generally known that the Danes also caught the seventeenth century Indian fever. While the English Company forbade

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its servants to take out their wives with them or to marry in the country, and discouraged colonial or political settlements, the Danes sent out many women and children in their fleet of six ships in 1619; they intended to make a settlement at Ceylon, but the Portuguese soon put an end to their hopes.

The existence of any Hungarian literature worthy of study is due largely to the patriotic enthusiasm of a few writers less than a century ago. The existence of Dr. Frederick Riedl's "History of Hungarian Literature" (D. Appleton & Co.) was also due to an outburst of enthusiasm. Its editor, C. Hagborg Wright, while visiting in Budapest some years ago, was assured that if the series of Edmund Gosse's Literatures of the World could be enlarged by a book on Magyar writers, the Hungarian Academy would commission "the ablest exponent of Hungarian literature in Hungary to write it, and present the manuscript" to him as a gift. Professor Riedl of the University of Budapest was selected. In due time the work was completed, and was translated into English by a Hungarian lady and her husband, with aid from Mr. Wright, who says that he furnished all the anonymous metrical translations and revised all the other metrical translations. They certainly needed such revision, and more. Unfortunately English poets who have tried their hands at rendering Magyar verse are few, and the specimens given are for the most part very wooden. Dr. Emil Reich's "Historical and Critical Survey of Hungarian Literature" was published with an excellent map not quite ten years ago. Dr. Reich was also a Hungarian, and knew what he was writing about. Between the two, one can get a comprehensive survey of the subject. According to Dr. Reich the number of Hungarian writers was then not less than 5,000. When one is informed that the Hungarian Academy is publishing twenty-five or thirty large volumes of the letters only of Kazinczy Férenc, who in his zeal to rejuvenate the ancient Magyar tongue added a multitude of new words, more than 6,000 of which remain a permanent acquisition; and that the characters represented in Jokai Mor's novels would "line a street for more than a mile"; and that these are only two of a multitude of most prolific poets and novelists—one realizes that a thorough knowledge of this literature is an impossibility. Professor Riedl's book is certainly more interesting than its rather text-bookish appearance would indicate. There are a good many entertaining anecdotes, some clever recapitulations, and a vast amount of out-of-the-way information. There are a few misprints, and it would have been a distinct addition had the editor seen fit to append a key to the pronunciation of the difficult names and words that occur.

Some time ago, in reviewing M. Fernand Baldensperger's admirable study of Goethe's literary influence, "Goethe en France" (Paris: Hachette), we called attention to the fact that its charm was enhanced by the absence of all critical apparatus, which the author preferred to publish separately for the benefit of specialists. This apparatus has now been brought out by the same publishers, under the title of "Bibliographie critique de Goethe en France," and will prove invaluable to students of French literature in the nineteenth century. The bibliographical material is arranged in accordance with the divisions of the original book, and is adequately annotated. The work thus completed is a significant contribution to the ever-increasing study of comparative literature.

The editor of the *Revue de Paris*, Victor Bérard, republishes in book form a number of articles on the relations of France and Germany since the Morocco Conference. His title is "La France et Guillaume II." (Paris: Colin), and his thesis is that economic interests and bank negotiations have been the underlying factors around which French and German diplomacy have struggled. He contrasts the policy of M. Delcassé, a statesman of the older school, with that of M. Rouvier, a practical expert in questions of banking and finance. He dwells complacently on the weakness of Germany in raw material and capital resources. He suggests, where he does not state, the action of the French bankers in bringing Spain into line with the policy of the republic, and of the French Government in restraining the investment of French capital for the Bagdad railway and other near-East German operations for which Berlin cannot find the money. The book is brilliantly written and will repay perusal.

A German jurist of distinction, Dr. Paul Herr, has just published a work entitled "Das Moderne Amerikanische Besserungssystem" (Berlin: Kohlhammer), in which he describes the methods employed in the United States for the moral improvement of youthful criminals by juvenile courts and reformatories. He dwells particularly on the organization and efficiency of the institution at Elmira. The volume contains the results of the author's personal observations and investigations in this country, and he now seeks to have the same system in its essential features introduced into Germany.

The annual report of the Michigan Library Commission notes as the important feature of its work during the past year, the establishment, in each of the normal schools of the State, of training classes in library science and usage. The object of these courses is to give the teachers of the rural schools, who are generally the custodians of the school libraries, the elementary training which will enable them to use and to help pupils to use these libraries intelligently. All who complete the course receive credentials, certifying that the holders are qualified "to select books and manage small libraries that may come under their care."

For several years there has been an exchange of language teachers between several secondary schools in France and in Germany, nearly all of these in institutions on the border. A leading Berlin journal reports that the Prussian educational authorities have under consideration such an exchange for the practical acquisition of foreign tongues between Germany and some American colleges. Something of this nature was introduced in the Berlin University during the recent Easter vacation, when double *Ferienkurse* were held, the lectures and practical exercises being conducted by Englishmen, the whole in charge of the English lector at the university, F. Sefton Delmer, who himself lectured on Dickens and his times. All the work was in the English language.

Theodor Aufrecht, the Sanskritist, died, in his eighty-seventh year, at Bonn, April 3, just "three years and three days" (an orthodox Hindu interval) after the great lexicographer, Boehtlingk. Aufrecht's death marks the close of the second great epoch in the history of Indian studies in the Occident. The founders, Sir William Jones, Colebrooke, Bopp,—these have long been gone; and now, at last, of the men who were most illustrious in the second half of the last century, Boehtlingk, Roth, Weber, Max Müller, Whitney, not one is left. Aufrecht was of the type, now rare, in which special knowledge of Sanskrit was combined with great learning in comparative grammar; most people have forgotten that what has for half a century been called Kuhn's "Zeitschrift" was originally (1851) Kuhn and Aufrecht's; and the monumental volume on the Umbrian language ("Umbrische Sprachdenkmäler") was the joint work of Kirchhoff with Aufrecht. His chief claim to distinction will doubtless be the fact that he was the first to publish the "Rig-Veda" in its entirety, although Müller's edition with the native scholia was begun and partly issued years before Aufrecht's. There is no man living (and we would not except even the native scholars of India) who has examined and read and catalogued so many manuscripts of India as Aufrecht has done. His "Catalogus Catalogorum" is a vast repertory of information about the titles and authors of the immense mass of works that form the Sanskrit literature.

André Theuriet, the French novelist and poet, died on Tuesday. He was born in 1833, a native of Marly-le-Roi. He studied at Bar-le-Duc, and went up to Paris for his examinations. In 1857 he entered the office of the Minister of Finance, but his interests even then were literary and he began to publish fugitive verses—chiefly in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. From 1857 to 1872 he produced a considerable body of verse, some of it of very charming quality. "Le Chemin des Bois" was especially commended by the Academy in 1867. In 1874 Theuriet appeared as a novelist, his first venture being "Mademoiselle Guignon." Among his other stories are "La Fortune d'Angèle," 1876; "Le Filleul d'un Marquis," 1878; "Tante Aurélie," 1884; "Claudette," 1900; and "Le Manuscrit du Chanoine," 1902. He was elected to the Academy in 1896. His work bore a certain intimate and charming quality which was derived from the sincerity with which he depicted the simple provincial and rural communities among which he had passed his life.

The death is announced of Dr. Alexander Macbain, headmaster of the High School of Inverness. He was born in 1855, and educated at Aberdeen University. For a time he edited the *Celtic Magazine*. He was best known by his "Etymological Dictionary of the Gaelic Language," 1896. Another of his books is "Celtic Mythology and Religion," 1885.

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NOTES ON TEXT BOOKS.

Prof. W. A. Merrill, for years a devoted student of Lucretius, has published an edition of the "De Rerum Natura" (Morris and Morgan's Latin Series, American Book Co.), in which his principal object is "to bring into compact form the results of critical work on the poem since Monro's posthumous edition of 1886, and also to indicate the sources of criticism prior to 1886 that were either disregarded by, or unknown to, that great scholar." This object is certainly accomplished in the volume before us. While it will not entirely supplant Monro, it must henceforth be consulted as one of the standard explanatory editions of Lucretius. The introduction reviews judicially a mass of utterances on the life of Lucretius and the characteristics of his poetry and philosophy. An editor may well limit himself to an annotated *catena;* we hope Mr. Merrill may soon give us an essay on his poet. Though devoutly a Lucretian, he writes with a tempered admiration; he can refer sympathetically, as Monro could not, to Conington's enthusiasm for Virgil. The influence of Lucretius on modern literature and modern thought is treated in an informal but comprehensive fashion; even the latest theory of radio-activity receives its due. Throughout the introduction and the notes, Mr. Merrill brings to bear on his author reflections amassed from wide reading in various fields. At the end there is a valuable index, by no means identical with that of Monro. For textual criticism, the reader must still turn first to Monro. It is a pity that there is not at least a brief *apparatus criticus,* especially as the notes contain a number of valuable discussions of the text. It is also lamentable that an important edition like this should not be better printed. The introduction and the text appear in large and staring type, which shows through the thin paper. The notes present a more attractive appearance. We have noted the following inaccuracies in the introduction: p. 11, the life of Virgil by Donatus might be referred to its generally accepted source, Suetonius; p. 17, the "spurious letter entitled *Valerius Rufino ne ducat uxorem*" in the "Migne edition of Jerome, vol. xi., p. 259," should be referred to its author, Walter Map, and cited from the edition of Thomas Wright (Camden Society, vol. 50).

"Lucian, Selected Writings," by Prof. F. G. Allinson, is much more than a book for college students, though admirably adapted, as it is intended, for use in the curriculum. (White, Seymour and Gulick's College Series of Greek Authors, Ginn & Co.) Mr. Allinson combines literary and linguistic interests in a manner worthy of his master, Gildersleeve. The introduction treats of the life and times of Lucian, his language, his influence on later literature and art; here and throughout the book there is much of importance for the student of comparative literature. The selections vary somewhat from those ordinarily presented in English editions of Lucian; each of them is provided with a careful preface. The notes are helpful and scholarly; they contain abundant, but not too abundant, citations from modern literature. Mr. Allison's exuberant style would profit by repression.

Among Appleton's Twentieth Century Text-books appears "The Mythology of Greece and Rome," by Prof. Arthur Fairbanks, "presented with special reference to its influence on literature." For this reason the book at once challenges comparison with Prof. C. M. Gayley's well-known work, "Classic Myths in English Literature," which it will hardly displace. Gayley's method is more attractive and artistic; besides systematic lists at the end of the book, appropriate quotations from literature are woven into the text. Mr. Fairbanks has the lists, with some quotations, at the end of each narrative, adding various references to those given by Gayley, but his text is a unit without these appendages. It does not show so effectively, therefore, the literary continuity of the myths. The distinct merit of the book is not that which is emphasized on the title-page; it is, rather, the fact that the ancient stories are told by a professional student of mythology who is familiar with the results of recent investigation. The illustrations, which are drawn exclusively from ancient art, are more numerous and far better than those in Gayley. In short, the new book is a valuable supplement to the old one; both should be useful for high-school or college courses. On p. 12, a Euhemerism is credited to Lemprière that should be carried back to Livy (I., 4, 7); on p. 233, Sisyphus, not Tantalus, should roll the stone up-hill.

A helpful little volume for the sympathetic reader of Latin verse is Prof. L. J. Richardson's "Helps to the Reading of Classical Latin Poetry" (Ginn & Co.). In contrast with certain theories promulgated in recent years by American scholars, it is refreshing to find due attention paid here to the rhythmical ictus. Word-accent and the careful distinction of long and short quantities are indispensable, too, but better the old-fashioned sing-song than a method which informs the learner that there is no essential difference in the reading of poetry and prose.

The latest volume in the Greek series edited by Prof. H. W. Smyth (American Book Co.) is a "Beginner's Greek Book," by Prof. A. R. Benner of Andover and Professor Smyth. Sixty lessons present attractively and sensibly the essentials of Greek grammar. The editors have taken special pains to distinguish between the less and the more frequent words and constructions of the "Anabasis," but their efforts to concentrate the pupil's attention on immediately useful material have not countenanced short cuts to knowledge; the dual retains its place in the paradigm. The book is beautifully printed; the illustrations illustrate, and are not too numerous. We should like to begin Greek again with Benner and Smyth.

The "Chanson de Roland," edited by Prof. James Geddes, jr., of Boston University (the Macmillan Co.), is one of the most important attempts yet undertaken to make the old French epic familiar to American students. The text is given in a modern French rendering based on Müller's edition, and is accompanied by an elaborate apparatus of introduction, bibliography, notes, and manuscript readings. Indeed, the chief criticism is the question for what class of students the book is intended. The translation is evidently meant for those whose knowledge is confined to modern French. The elaborate bibliography, based on that of Gautier, but brought up to date, will be of great use to maturer students of philology and mediæval literature, but to them only. With this reservation all comment must be favorable. The large amount of information contained in the volume is well classified and systematized for reference, and is accompanied by maps and useful illustrations. Professor Geddes's judgments on controverted points and obscurities are conservative and sound.

Prof. Arthur Graves Canfield of the University of Michigan, whose "French Lyrics" have had considerable popularity, undertakes in his "Poems of Victor Hugo" (Henry Holt & Co.) the useful task of selecting for students the best material scattered through numerous and therefore expensive volumes. The average American unfamiliar with French except by translations, knows Hugo as a rule only as the author of novels like "Les Misérables" and "Notre Dame." To these the college student may have added "Hernani" and "Ruy Blas." Professor Canfield has therefore done well to prepare this anthology of the most characteristic sounds of Hugo's *écho sonore.* If ever French poet needs to be read in selections by the American student, bewildered by such a mass of material, it is Victor Hugo. The volume is accompanied by a brief introduction.

Recent additions to the Oxford Higher French Series (Henry Frowde) are editions of Hugo's "Hernani," selections from Alfred de Musset, Stendhal's "Racine et Shakespeare" and selections from Madame de Girardin's "Lettres parisiennes." The first two compare well with the student's editions already before the public. The last, prepared respectively by the general editor, Léon Delbos, and by F. de Baudiss, are an innovation in the sphere of French educational texts, and in this country, at least, the volumes will have to create their own market. The edition of Stendhal does deserve to be read by the general student. The need of the other is less apparent. M. Delbos has accompanied his text by a long introduction in French in which certain relations between art and literature are developed in an interesting way. The mechanical get-up of these volumes is not prepossessing.

"Deutsche Sagen" is the title of a little volume edited by Franziska Geibler, of New York, and published by Longmans, Green & Co. As another collection of the Germanic legends always in demand in introductory courses, the book is likely to meet with success; but it is strangely deficient in the absence of notes, and its word-for-word vocabulary is inadequate—as, *aussah,* looked, with no mention of *aussehen.*

"Deutsche Reden" is the attractive title of a series of well-selected speeches by Bismarck, Schurz, Emperor William II., Bebel, Moltke, Blum, Richter, Bülow, Dahlmann, Bennigsen, and others, put together for advanced students of German by Rudolf Tombo, sr., and Rudolf Tombo, jr., of Columbia University, and published by D. C. Heath & Co. Such a book has long been wanted, not so much because of a scarcity of difficult prose, but because most of the selections previously available have not been sufficiently interesting. How well these

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painstaking editors have achieved their end and provided variety in style and subject may be seen in the thirteen speeches, covering some 219 pages, and touching upon important political movements of the world's history—including events in the United States—from the middle of the nineteenth century to the Anglo-Japanese Treaty of 1905, and the subsequent treaty of Portsmouth. There is a clear and vivid picture of the struggle for German unity, and an insight into the tremendous industrial and political development of Germany from the refounding of the empire. The arrangement of the speeches in alphabetical order is perhaps a mistake, since the shortest and least difficult should be read first; but the volume is embellished with a map, and there are sixty-nine pages of literary and historical notes, several of the biographical sketches being particularly well done.

The more advanced students of mathematics will be interested in three books published this year: "Introduction to Infinitesimal Analysis: Functions of One Real Variable," by Oswald Veblen and N. J. Lennes (New York: Wiley & Sons); "Elements of the Infinitesimal Calculus," by G. H. Chandler, third edition (Wiley); and "Differential and Integral Calculus," by G. A. Osborne, revised edition (Boston: Heath & Co.). For more than a century after the inventions of analytical geometry and the calculus, mathematicians and physicists may be said to have fairly rioted in applications of these instruments to physical and geometrical problems, without concerning themselves about the nicer questions of cogency and precision. The need felt in the latter part of the eighteenth century of putting the new science into a comprehensive system, led to the imposing textbooks of Euler in Germany and of Lacroix in France. These works revealed in a startling way the necessity of improving foundations. Then began the still advancing critical movement under the powerful impulse and leadership of Cauchy. Since that time the calculus has been not only a tool, but a subject of investigation; and, always the most powerful, it has now become the most refined instrument of human thought. Accordingly every genuine university now offers two courses in the calculus: an elementary course, designed to equip the student with the calculus viewed as an instrument for making rough investigations, and an advanced course designed to qualify him to use the calculus in the most exact and subtle thinking. The books by Professor Chandler and Professor Osborne, as designed for the beginner, have numerous rivals in the English language. On the other hand, the work of Messrs. Veblen and Lennes, being designed for advanced study, has but a single English rival, namely, "The Theory of Functions of Real Variables," by Prof. James Pierpont, which was noticed in these columns September 6, 1906. Prior to the appearance of Pierpont's book, an American or English student of the advanced modern calculus had to depend upon such foreign works as Jordan's "Cours d'Analyse" and Stolz's "Allgemeine Arithmetik." The aim of such critical work being precision and logical perfection, it tends at first to become prolix and only at last succeeds in becoming concise. The most conspicuous merit of the work of Messrs. Veblen and Lennes is the union of conciseness with rigor. This union became possible by means of two economical devices. One of these is the happy definition of the limit of a function in terms of the notion of "value approached." The other consists in the systematic employment of a recently established theorem in the doctrine of assemblages, namely, the Borel theorem, so called after its discoverer. The utility of the book would be much improved by the introduction of numerous examples and illustrations. In this third edition of his book, Professor Chandler has made some changes to bring the treatment and content into fuller accord with modern demands both of rigor and of utility. The basis is laid in the doctrine of limits. The differential notation is introduced at an early stage, and, everywhere throughout, the reader finds the abstract notions and processes illuminated by simple application to concrete problems, chiefly of geometry. The closing chapters afford an excellent introduction to differential equations and mechanical integration. Taken all in all, it is one of the very best of existing books for the student of engineering, for whom it is primarily designed. By introducing a chapter on series, by rearranging the order of topics, by the earlier geometric illustration of the notion of derivative, and by the incorporation of physical and mechanical applications, Professor Osborne has amply justified the revision of his book, though his decision to give several definitions of the differential instead of but one cannot but annoy the instructor and confuse the pupil.

"A Text Book on Hydraulics," by L. M. Hoskins, professor of applied mathematics in Stanford University (Henry Holt & Co.), is, according to the preface, "designed primarily for the use of students of engineering in universities and technical colleges. In its preparation the aim has been to present fundamental principles in a manner both sound and as simple as possible." This aim the author has carried out successfully both with respect to the treatment of the mechanics of incompressible fluids, or hydraulics itself, and the application of the principles to turbines and turbine pumps. There is, however, a distinct lack of the engineer's point of view, as might be expected from a professor of applied mathematics. The material given on pumps and turbines serves very well as an introduction to the subject for some students of engineering, but students who expect to practise this branch must go further. Moreover, the book lacks practical data in the form of tables or curves to facilitate application of formulas and practical computations. The relative value of several formulas for the same purpose is not stated with sufficient clearness for the young engineer to solve a problem on the flow of water in various channels, on turbine design or installation. The book is distinctly elementary, and as such is well written and supplied with good examples.

"Boiler-Waters," scale, corrosion, foaming, by William Wallace Christie (New York: D. Van Nostrand Co.), is devoted to the chemistry of boiler waters and the relation of the structure of boilers, feed-water heaters, economizers, etc., to the impurities in water. The work concludes with a chapter on water softening for the removal of these impurities. The book is well written and printed, and the material is of great value, but it would be of greater value if the author, instead of quoting the opinions of engineers and chemists on disputed points, had made a more determined attempt to solve the difficult questions. The number of quotations, presented with little or no critical analysis, is unduly large, and seems to indicate a lack of ability on the part of the author to judge between the various opinions. The chemistry presented is not new to chemists; nor is the matter on boilers and heaters new to engineers. The relation between the chemical and engineering issues is, however, well brought out, and on this account the book will no doubt prove useful.

There are so many manuals of qualitative analysis on the market, practically alike except for the author's name on the title page, that any new candidate for popular favor is viewed with *a priori* suspicion and must justify its appearance by showing that it has something to distinguish it from its rivals in the field. The new "Qualitative Analysis as a Laboratory Basis for the Study of Inorganic Chemistry," by Assistant Prof. W. C. Morgan of the University of California (The Macmillan Co.), has such justification, and will be welcomed by many teachers who wish to make the modern theories of solution the basis of analytical work, even in elementary classes. A large and increasing number of teachers, especially in the West, have come to believe that students take to ions as readily as to atoms, and that when they are accustomed to look at all reactions from the point of view of equilibrium, qualitative analysis becomes something more than a training in detective tricks. Professor Morgan's book is intended for the laboratory work of a freshman year in inorganic chemistry, so it is not a mere collection of technical recipes, but a course of general educational value. The discussion of the laws of solution and equilibrium is more thorough than usual, occupying sixty pages, but is not always as simple as it might be. The ordinary and unaided student would be discouraged, for example, by the statement with which the paragraph on mass action begins. The analytical tables are very complete and well arranged. Professor Morgan has adopted all the modern improvements; arrows are used in reactions instead of the sign of equality; the reagents are made up on the normal system; the orthography recommended by the American Chemical Society is consistently employed, as, for example, *oxid* and *sulfid*.

In his small "History of Chemistry" (Longmans, Green & Co.) F. P. Armitage tells "the story of some thousand years of almost fruitless labor, followed by two centuries of richest accomplishment." It is neither so comprehensive nor so interesting as Meyer's "History of Chemistry," but will serve its purpose in giving the student a background for his knowledge, and a realization of the difficulties experienced by generations of chemists in formulating the conceptions which now seem so simple and natural. Like most other histories of the science, this fails to connect with the science of the present day. The book might have been written ten or twenty years ago. To be specific in our criticism, in the discus-

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sion of Berzelius's electro-chemical theory of combination some reference should be made to the modern tendency to use this conception in preference to its supplanters; in giving Mendelejeff's prophesy of gallium and scandium, mention should have been made of the argon group, which was not anticipated, and yet agrees in a way with the periodic law; and in developing the idea of valence, the history should have been extended to include the profound modifications which it is now undergoing.

"First Course in Zoölogy," a text-book for secondary schools, normal schools, and colleges, by Thomas Walton Galloway, has been issued by P. Blakiston's Son & Co., Philadelphia. It is no small compliment to this volume to say that it is well-balanced in its treatment of zoölogy in the widest sense. It is divided into two sections; a general part dealing with the broad biological problems which form the foundation of the science; and a special part, taking up the various phyla of the animal kingdom, beginning with protozoa and ending with mammalia. The most valuable feature is the successful way in which the second part is made "illustrative of the principles laid down in the general portion." The illustrations are well-selected and reproduced. The work is rounded out with a practical chapter on suggestions to teachers, and a comprehensive index. The author believes that the time of the pupil should be divided equally between field observation, laboratory work, study of the descriptive text, and reference to classical zoölogical authorities. In point of careful balance and common-sense use of questions, few recent text-books bear comparison with this volume.

"Practical Zoölogy," by Alvin Davison (American Book Co.) treats of the structure, life history, and relations of animals, with but a small amount of laboratory work. The attempt to cover such a large field in small space has resulted in a multitude of statistics, facts in regard to food habits, and detailed life histories, correlated only by a taxonomic arrangement. This plan cuts up the subject matter in such a way that the book instead of being adapted for continuous study by a pupil, is really much better for reference. The summary of characters under each of the scores of families is concise, yet comprehensive. While many of the numerous illustrations are fairly good, there is a great waste of paper and ink on touched-up caricatures, far from "representing facts more accurately than drawings." It is safe to say that no ornithologist living could identify the photographs purporting to represent the red-eyed vireo, wren, wood thrush at nest, young bluebird, and wild pigeon. The best part of the book is Division IV., treating of the young of animals, protection from enemies, vanishing forms, and origin of species.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Mystics. By Katherine Cecil Thurston. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Mrs. Thurston possesses imagination and a laudable desire to skip the dull parts, explanations, for instance. When John Henderson finds that his dead uncle has left him with a beggarly £500, and endowed a mystic sect with the bulk of his huge fortune, John calmly rifles the corpse, masters the "Scitsym" (mystic equivalent for Bible or Koran) and vanishes for ten years. The fortune is not to go directly to the Arch-Mystics, but to await the appearance of a Mystic Messiah. In due time, after being well announced by a Precursor, there is forthcoming a Prophet, who unites many of the attributes of Buddha and Sar Péladan with the physical manifestations of a modern Englishman. Having been informed that "He will be Power made absolute," the Mystics immediately fall under his sway.

On the eve of securing the fortune and decamping with it, John is softened by the love and trust of a beautiful woman, and resolves to make a clean breast of it all to his congregation. This is quite fortunate, as the occasion which he chooses for confession had also been selected by a jealous brute of an Arch-Mystic (named Mr. Bale-Corphew) to expose him as a thief and impostor. The loyal Mystics forgive their Master, considering it quite excuse enough that John's father had been unjustly disinherited, and that he had always been an exemplary son. John, however, feels that his mother may not quite understand the position, but the beautiful woman (secure in the knowledge that mothers always are partial to strange daughters-in-law) volunteers to go along and explain things, and so, with much unction, the book ends.

The House of the Hundred Doors. By Will M. Clemens. New York: The Hawthorne Press.

This we take to be properly classified as fiction, though of the tractarian variety. Prefaced by a series of sentimental descriptions of a number of household pets, all dogs, as it chances, and all human, as is the nature of household pets, comes the harrowing picture of a vivisection laboratory. "Rich Man John," whose physical and moral identity are left in no doubt, succumbs to the evil advances of "two learned-looking men, a tall individual with whiskers and a hooked nose and a fat piggish fellow wearing blue glasses," and gives some millions of dollars for the establishment of a so-called Institute, which is really a Palace of Pain, where the little domestic friends to whom we have been introduced, now lost, strayed, or stolen, are subjected in due time to nameless and purposeless atrocities which remind one of Hogarth's last stage of cruelty. The vivisectors are represented as alternately gloating and jesting over their task; and no gruesome detail is omitted to point the anti-vivisection moral—if it be a moral. We suppose the author is honest in his intention; but we beg leave to suggest that all physicians are not hook-nosed, piggish, or wantonly cruel; and that vivisection is not specifically a conspiracy against the household favorite.

The Princess. By Margaret Potter. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1907.

The Princess of this story is not the sublimated shop-girl of current romance, disporting herself in some new-found hole-and-corner kingdom. She is of the Imperial family of Russia, and of to-day. The events in which she is involved have but just taken place, and are not the stuff pretty romances are made of. Indeed, it would be hard to imagine an uglier situation than that upon which the action turns. The problem is one of heredity, and of the convention which obliges royal blood to deny itself the vulgar chances of marital felicity, thereby laying a respectable foundation for marital infidelity. The mother of the Princess has herself suffered all that could be suffered from marriage with a notorious libertine of the Imperial blood, yet has unhesitatingly given her daughter, a mere girl, and totally unprepared for the experience which is plainly before her, to a man of the same race and stamp. The Princess is not long in discovering his character. Naturally of pure nature and high spirit, she turns from him, bears him a child in shame, and wishes to die. But presently her motherhood absorbs her, the familiar yet always touching transfer of allegiance to the man-child takes place, and she is saved for further suffering. By the unhappy irony of inherited circumstance, she is herself responsible for the worst of this suffering. Her husband, the Prince, we are given to understand, might have been redeemed but for her cold pride and contempt. More than once he tries to be worthy of her and to win her love; but though she really cares for him, she makes no sign. He is driven back to his loose ways, his second *ménage*, his attitude of cynical indifference to anything beyond the pleasure of the moment. For the fate of the son she is also responsible. There is a little countess at hand with whom he might have been happy; but the mother thinks her an impossible match for her Imperial son. Meanwhile the stress of his inheritance is asserting itself, and he becomes, unknowingly, the favored lover of his own father's mistress. Here, the inevitable *éclaircissement*—the son commits suicide, the father is left, with dejected monocle, upon the strand from which, in one friendly boat, princess, countess, and mistress have departed. Whether they are sufficiently provisioned for so hard a voyage is a matter of doubt. Individually they become less and less probable as the story advances, as the atmosphere in which they move has become less and less real. The friendly ghost against whose advice both mother and mistress have wrought for the son's undoing—an audible conscience—becomes tedious as a piece of machinery. The Princess is too purely, and the mistress not sufficiently, a creature of circumstance, to give dignity to the final scene. Nevertheless the tale is in its way absorbing, and not likely to be at once forgotten.

The Isle of Dreams. By Myra Kelly. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Nothing could have been more fatal to Miss Kelly's talent than for her to continue reproducing her original observations of the lower East Side in impressions of waning clearness and value. In breaking new ground, however, she is beset by many difficulties. It is much harder to write freshly about every-day people than to exploit an odd corner with humor and originality. In describing the girl and man of ordinary society, the very language is against her, and irresistibly groups itself into such customary arrangements as "a slim young woman, faultlessly but unobtrusively gowned."

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There is no aid to be had from quaint erratic idioms. Her battle with words must be fought single-handed. In "The Isle of Dreams" she fights and—it cannot be denied—loses on almost every page; and yet such honorable defeat must command far greater respect and hope for her future than if she rested tamely content with the cheap victory of repeating well earned successes.

Her story has two themes, one banal and improbable—Miss Emerton's inviting her most charming friend to accompany her to her country house as a foil, which episode, with the ensuing complications, belongs in the realm of purely artificial fiction—the other highly original and interesting. An ambitious young woman painter suddenly finds that all her pictures have been bought by one man, that her apparent vogue has not been genuine, but merely the hobby of one fanciful collector, that at the point when fame seems assured, her spurs are essentially unwon. This situation is really worthy of more serious treatment than Miss Kelly accords it. Having brought it about, she apparently feels obliged to meet it in a mood of the rosiest idealism. Old servants, of the kind who dust the books as the curtain goes up, enliven the narrative with their highly conventional humor. Mrs. Denis bathes Katharine's forehead with "Ody Colone," and dubs an adopted gutter snipe Doris Gwendolin Patricia (the snipe, by the way, performs no function of any discernible kind, in the story), and converses alternately in stage Irish and after the manner of Pomona in "Rudder Grange." In short, Miss Kelly hardly shows the courage of her convictions. Imagining a really strong, if painful situation, instead of bravely and patiently unravelling it, she positively submerges it in sugary optimism. It should, however, be confessed that her method will undoubtedly give perfect satisfaction to those readers who look upon a novel as a mental form of sweetened pepsin.

The Heart of Hamlet's Mystery. Translated from the German of Karl Werder by Elizabeth Wilder, with an Introduction by W. J. Rolfe. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

As a matter of general sentiment there are probably few persons who do not take for granted that in some manner or other the explanation of Hamlet's tragedy is to be found in Hamlet's own character. The prevalence of this view is due in part to the influence of its original promoters, Goethe and Coleridge; but it is due also to an instinctive appreciation of Shakespeare's general idea and practice of tragedy. Well rooted as it has come to be, however, it has not lacked assailants—to fasten it, if anything, even more securely by vigorous opposition. Of this opposition the leader seems to be the German professor, Karl Werder. In his lectures, delivered in Berlin during the winter of 1859-1860 and now tardily translated for the first time (as the translator explains, in consequence of the interest aroused by the citations in Furness's "Variorum"), Professor Werder undertakes to show, in opposition to the accepted interpretation, that the obstacles or difficulties in the way of Hamlet's action are not "subjective," as is usually assumed, but wholly "objective." As an explanation of the professor's idea of objective difficulties the following quotation will suffice.

> What is Hamlet to do? What is his actual task? . . . It is not to crush the King at once—he could commit no greater blunder—but to bring him to confession, to unmask and convict him. . . . As things stand, truth and justice can come to light only from one mouth, that of the crowned criminal, and if he . . . does not speak, then the truth will be for ever hidden. . . . Herein lie the terrors of this tragedy. The secret of the encoffined and unprovable crime is the unfathomable source out of which flows its power to awaken pity and fear.

Exactly. Such is Hamlet's character—that he should hesitate to avenge his father and even to secure his own safety for an ideal justice, a personal scruple, which a man like Othello would never have felt.

Aside from this—aside, that is, from the whole contention—the point is ingenious, as for that matter is the entire plea. At the same time it is only just to notice that Werder has confused his reasoning. Sometimes he reasons outside of the play and sometimes inside of it indifferently. So, for instance, he urges, in the way of an "objective" difficulty to any action on Hamlet's part, that it would have been impossible for the Prince to convince the Danish public of the justice of Claudius's death, were he to be killed off-hand at the suggestion of the ghost. But such a reason is purely external to the piece; it is legal or political, not dramatic. The Danish public is neither an actor nor a motive in the drama; and if need were, the poet might have justified such an act dramatically just as satisfactorily as he has carried off Lear's impossible repudiation of Cordelia. The fact is that it is a dramatic necessity that prevents Hamlet from killing the King, and not a political one, but this is the bane of scholastic criticism—to confuse the motives proper to life with those proper to drama, to reason about the stuff or fable of tragedy as though that were all there is to it. And Professor Werder himself has not escaped the infection.

Synthetica: being Meditations Epistemological and Ontological. By S. S. Laurie. 2 vols. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $7 net.

The first of these volumes contains nineteen meditations on knowledge; and the second, eighteen meditations on God and man. "The meditations of the second volume constituted, along with an introductory statement giving the argument of the first volume, the Gifford Lectures delivered in the University of Edinburgh in 1905 and 1906." The author tells us that he uses the term "meditations" to express the form of his work because it is substantially a dialogue with himself. Any random quotation, such as the following (vol. i., p. 279), fairly illustrates the general character of this dialogue:

> There are grades of mind. The attuitional synoptic single total given to percipience is broken up, in the dialectic effort to understand it, into parts (judgments of subject and predicates), but it is still a *synoptic* whole, with this difference that it is now to thought an aggregate of affirmed parts—a *mere* aggregate, however. This concipient synthesis (as we may now call the synopsis) consists of contrary elements held together by *the mere force of Will.* The next moment of the Dialectic, however, gives the true rational synthesis in which the fused unity of the synopsis is metaphysically explained. The mechanical unity of sense-concipience with its collocated and colligated parts is now superseded. The dialectic as a one movement grips the unity, and it is now a *one.* The "How" of the fusion phenomenally is still beyond us; but reason is satisfied. *Each* "thing" is to be looked at as a "dialectic one" at first and at last. I am not entitled to stop short at any functioning act of the various moments of the dialectic, and then complain of contradictions.

Seven hundred pages of this personal dialogue, the greater part of which is no more generally intelligible than the quoted instance, cause us to wonder why it was not translated into communications to the reader before it was published. Dr. Laurie has, in our opinion, made a book which very few will have the courage or the patience to read.

One should, however, be willing to suffer much if illumination is to be one's reward. How far, then, we may ask, do these meditations clarify the problems of knowledge, and give us intelligible opinions about God and man? In answer we are forced to subscribe emphatically to the author's words at the end of his book: "With a profound sense of mystery we begin our thought on the ultimate of things, and with a still profounder sense of mystery we close it." We do not insist that philosophy should not result in a profounder sense of mystery, but we do insist that with such a result the sense of mystery should be genuinely profound. It should not be merely another expression for intellectual confusion, for then philosophy has utterly failed.

Difficult in expression and intellectually confused as the work is, its general aim and method as well as its philosophical affiliations may yet be detected. Dr. Laurie attempts to exhibit the development of knowledge from its rudimentary beginnings up to its culmination, where it seeks an "absolute synthesis" in the recognition that "All is One—must be One; and the last and highest is already immanent in the first and lowest." In the second volume this synthesis is religiously interpreted, and some of the characteristic problems of theology are discussed in the light of it. Dr. Laurie has thus increased in bulk the products of that modern philosophical tendency which seeks in a theory of knowledge a solution of philosophical problems and an interpretation of religious faith. We fail to discover, however, that he has increased its intelligibility or given it any new significance or justification.

A Staff Officer's Scrap-book During the Russo-Japanese War. By Sir Ian Hamilton. Vol. II. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $4 net.

This really brilliant book deserves a wide public, even though the present volume deals almost exclusively, and at great length, with military details. For the author belongs to that very small class of soldiers who add to an extensive technical equipment the knowledge that to conduct war is to play on the psychology of individuals and of masses, and to that even smaller class with whom the pen flashes as readily as the sword. Sir Ian is a wit, the best of comrades, fair to foe as to friend, willing to acknowledge a mistake or a weakness, and always a military critic of the first rank. No soldier can afford to

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miss the book, while many civilians will get both profit and amusement from it.

Sir Ian is too much of a scholar and a thinker not to have a philosophy, and too brave a man to fear being out of fashion. He boldly preaches the doctrine that war is the school of all the virtues, and peace the breeding place of all the vices. Yet he saw such sights as 203 Metre Hill a few days after its capture by the Japanese:

At a glance it springs to the eyes that this is no ordinary hill. It has been fairly battered out of its shape by inhuman agencies, and on its blasted and shot-seared surface there is not so much as one dried blade of grass; nothing to break the harshness of the devil's ploughing to which it has been subjected, but here and there the faded color of a woman's gown or petticoat, which has been used to make sandbags, or the leprous yellow splotches left by the bursting of the high-explosive shells. The manner of the devil's ploughing is thus: first the hill has been sliced into numberless deep gashes, and then these trenches and their dividing walls have been smashed and pounded and crushed into a shapeless jumble of stones; rock splinters and fragments of shells cemented literally with human flesh and blood. A man's head sticking up out of the earth, or a leg, or an arm, or a piece of a man's body lying across my path, are sights which custom has enabled me to face without blanching. But here the corpses do not so much appear to be escaping from the ground as to be the ground itself. Everywhere there are bodies, or portions of bodies, flattened out and stamped into the surface of the earth, as if they formed part of it. . . . The very walls are built of alternate layers of frozen corpses and sandbags.

Let us turn from the horrible to the theoretical; here our author is equally at home. His discussion of the strategy of the converging march of the Japanese on Liao Yang can hardly be done justice to by quotation; all that can be noted is that the comparison with Von Moltke's march on Sadowa is of much interest, and the suggestions of a defence of the converging march based on the development of fire arms is tantalizing, because only hinted at, and not developed. Such a theory would place the question higher than Von der Golz did.

The unusual quality of the book, however, arises from the personality of the author, and it is on this note we must leave it. Just before the advance on Mukden, Sir Ian was recalled to England to command the troops at Salisbury plain. He and the other foreign attachés were entertained at a banquet before his departure, and here is the speech he pronounced on that occasion:

I felt almost overcome when I rose to reply. I said the King of England, in giving me my appointment, had probably been influenced by knowing I had enjoyed exceptional opportunities for studying my profession with the First Army. For it was first not only in its numeral. It had fought the first battle, first entered Manchuria, first crossed the Taitsuho. . . Thus, although His Excellency and his army were so modest that they did not know it, they were now the most popular military force in the world. If any of them went to London or New York they would be surprised at the warmth of their welcome. The only place in the world where they would henceforth be disliked was on Salisbury plain, for the troops there would so often hear of the virtues of the First Army that they would wish his Excellency Gen. Kuroki had never been born. I wound up, as far as I can remember, by inviting the whole 42,000 to come and stay with me in England as long as ever they liked.—It was very characteristic of Japanese tact, that when it came to the turn of the interpreter to translate my remarks he should have added to the towns of London and New York which I had actually mentioned, the names of Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Rome and Stockholm, which I had forgotten to include.

Freedom in the Church. By Alexander V. G. Allen. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.

The clergyman of the Episcopal Church, Dr. A. S. Crapsey, who was recently condemned as a heretic in the diocese of Western New York, is not expressly mentioned in Professor Allen's defence of liberty within the confines of the Church, but it is unmistakable that the questions and difficulties arising from that heresy trial and its issue furnish the occasion for this volume. Not that Professor Allen confesses heresy on the doctrine of the Virgin birth: on the contrary, he writes:

It is accepted as the miraculous or supernatural mode by which God became incarnate in Christ, as the resurrection and the empty tomb mark the exodus of Christ from the world.

But although himself orthodox, he would find abundant freedom in the Church for men of the opposite opinion. His method of defence of liberty is historical. He has, of course, no difficulty in showing that in the mind of its framers the Apostles' Creed meant something very different from its usual interpretation to-day. The studies of Kattenbusch, McGiffert, and others on the Old Roman Symbol have made this entirely clear. In his historical study of the causes which led to the change of interpretation of Christianity's oldest creed, and the motives for increased emphasis on the miraculous birth, the author of "The Continuity of Christian Thought" again shows himself a fascinating interpreter of the movements of religious thought and a skilful advocate of his own interpretation.

In the question of morals involved in creed subscription, it may be questioned whether he is so successful. He rules out of court somewhat brusquely the judgment of ordinary mortals as to the propriety or impropriety of the use of the creed by one who does not assent to it as it is commonly understood, and declares that "the judgment of the 'man on the street' has no value, even though it find vigorous and severe expression in the utterances of the secular press." "Religion," we are told, "has its own laws, it is guided by deep motives, which only those interested or, as it were, obsessed by them can understand." The question would seem to be as to what function the reciter of the creed is supposed to fulfil. If he is a celebrant of mysteries, common judgment on the meaning of the offices he employs may be disregarded. If he be regarded as an historian or theologian, he may be allowed to quote ancient formularies in a sense known only to himself. But if the minister is a teacher, and, in reciting the creed, a leader in an intelligent act of worship, it is difficult to see how Professor Allen's claim of the privilege of employing the creed in an esoteric sense can be allowed.

As a tract for its times, however, this volume presents important considerations on a vital question, and the effort of the author to secure and establish freedom in the Church, as well as his endeavor to impart correct information as to the history of symbols now in controversy, should secure him wide sympathy.

Naturalism and Religion. By Dr. Rudolf Otto; translated by J. Arthur Thomson and Margaret R. Thomson; edited with an Introduction by the Rev. W. D. Morrison. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.

The Religious Conception of the World. By Arthur Kenyon Rogers. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.

A few years ago theologians of a certain school were saying confidently that religious doctrine could dispense entirely with metaphysics, and that faith could pursue untrammelled her even way in total unconcern as to what view of the world philosophy might establish. That such a position could not be permanent was evident to all thoughtful observers; and the vigorous essay of Professor Otto, who is in the spiritual succession of the followers of Ritschl, may be taken as evidence that a decided reaction is well under way. The German title of his work, "Naturalistische und religiöse Weltansicht," indicates his intention to set in positive contrast the naturalistic and religious interpretation of the world, and his treatise as a whole is an earnest endeavor to establish the validity of the religious view as against the counter-claims of naturalism. The notion that the spiritual is a mere accompaniment of the physical he cannot tolerate, and against all forms of sensualism, empiricism, and parallelism he asserts the creative activity of the spirit. He defends a view of the world in which there is room for the sense of mystery, the feeling of dependence, and belief in purpose, which are the three essentials of religious faith. In establishing this view, he considers at length, and with commendable fairness and thoroughness, the opinions of leading naturalists, both English and German, down to the most recent, and he shows himself at home in the discussion of scientific theories to a degree unfortunately rare in theologians. In the course of his argument, which he pursues with enthusiasm as well as with logical force, he brings to the fore important considerations which recent apologetes have been inclined to neglect; and both his work and that of Professor Rogers, which follows independently somewhat similar lines, will doubtless help to win back for the defenders of the spiritual some of the territory which they had relinquished too readily and with too little appreciation of its value and importance.

The Lombard Communes: A History of the Republics of North Italy. By W. F. Butler. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $3.75 net.

Professor Butler writes easily and well; he has thoroughly mastered his subject, and he possesses the rare art of adequate condensation. But, while heartily commending his industry, accuracy, and general level of attainment, we may fairly warn the reader that his treatment is such as is ordinarily characterized by the term

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"popular." In other words, he has written for the general public rather than for the student. His Bibliography, which he modestly entitles "A rough list of books useful for the study of the history of the Lombard Communes," contains a bare score of well-known volumes—Cantù, Sismondi, Hegel, Leo, Ferrari, Von Raumer, and the like—while some of them (*e. g.*, Symonds's "The Renaissance in Italy" and Villari's "I Primi due Secoli della Storia di Firenze") have, at best, only an indirect bearing on the topic. Possibly a dozen other books are mentioned in the footnotes, but usually without specifying either the publisher or the date. As we learn from the preface, Professor Butler's work is largely based upon the "Storia de' Comuni Italiani" of Francesco Lanzani, an excellent book, but hardly up to date (it was published just a quarter of a century ago). Although our author has doubtless acquainted himself with the results of more recent research, he fails to give his readers the full benefit of his knowledge. Surely, such periodicals as the *Archivio Storico Lombardo* and the *Bollettino della Società Pavese di Storia Patria* deserve a place in even the most meagre list of books dealing with the Lombard Republics.

All this, however, is no reflection on Professor Butler's competence for his task. It simply means that he has chosen to write for that class to whom a citation is anathema and a foot-note an eyesore. Of actual mistakes we have found scarcely one. We may object that "parish" is hardly an adequate translation of *pieve*, and we may demur to the statement that "one can still see in Perugia the fragments of the chains carried off from Siena" (p. 224). (The chains in question were removed by the Aretines in 1799). But, when all is said and done, we have rarely seen a better book written by an Englishman about Italy.

Science.

Haeckel: His Life and Work. By Wilhelm Bölsche; with Introduction and supplementary Chapter by the Translator, Joseph McCabe. Illustrated. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $4.

This is an unusually successful work in a difficult field. The hardest kind of biography to write is the life of a scientific man, because it is ordinarily lacking in dramatic action, and its triumphs are in a field so remote from common life that the average reader can hardly be made to understand them, still less to appreciate their significance. Professor Bölsche is not ashamed to explain things; and therefore the layman, who has only a vague conception of radiolaria and who does not know so much about Darwinism as he thinks he does, will be able to read the whole volume with comprehension, and even to share largely in the author's biological enthusiasm. His unstinted devotion to his master prevents him from being critical, and his Teutonic sentimentality will sometimes amuse the reader, but he certainly tells clearly what Haeckel has done, and how he did it. Most biographies contain an excess of trivial detail; this one does not contain enough of Haeckel's private life and idiosyncrasies to give us a vivid picture of his personality. So, while we must give credit to the author for teaching us a great deal of zoölogy in a pleasant manner, the most difficult part of his task, he has hardly done justice to an exceptionally interesting individuality.

Haeckel's work is far from being what one of our modern humanists defined as the ideal of scholarship—"the passionless pursuit of passionless intelligence." Nor has he followed the Baconian method of patiently accumulating miscellaneous facts, meanwhile restraining himself from anticipatory conjecture. Prof. William James came nearer defining the Haeckel type when he said that the successful investigator is one who has an intense desire to prove himself right, coupled with an equally intense fear lest he should be wrong. Haeckel has done an exceptionally large amount of unimpeachable descriptive work, involving the severest kind of scientific drudgery—forty-two volumes, many of them quartos, comprising 13,000 pages, not counting journal papers, in thirty-three years. Yet he is chiefly known to the world at large by his bold hypotheses, projected far in advance of the evidence supporting them. As early as 1866, five years before the cautious Darwin had ventured to publish in "The Descent of Man" some of the logical consequences of his "Origin of Species," Haeckel had constructed a comprehensive genealogical tree of the animal and vegetable kingdoms, guessing at all the missing links, and even endeavoring to fill the gulf between living and inorganic matter by adding a lower kingdom of "protists" and arguing for the life of crystals; and during the forty years since he has unceasingly preached his gospel of monism to both the scientific and the outside world. Haeckel is commonly called the apostle of Darwinism, but it would perhaps be more appropriate to say he is the apostle of Goetheism, for it was from Goethe that he received the aspiration toward a unifying philosophy, to which the discoveries of Darwin gave an experimental basis. His monumental work, "The General Morphology of Organisms," owes more than its title to Goethe; and it is not by accident that Ernst Haeckel Street in Jena passes close by the stone seat where Goethe and Schiller used to discuss the "Riddles of the Universe."

Professor Bölsche's biographical sketch closed in 1900; but since then Haeckel has become more widely known than before through the popularity of "Die Welträthsel," which sold by the hundred thousand, and has been translated into fourteen languages. It called forth a library of replies, most of them in very hot temper, aroused, perhaps, less by what the book contained than by the jaunty air with which Haeckel decides in a few pages questions that metaphysicians, theologians, sociologists, and natural philosophers have been discussing for centuries without coming to any conclusion. As a reply to the five thousand personal letters which he received about the "Riddle of the Universe," he dashed off during a vacation visit to the Riviera on the occasion of his seventieth birthday a similar book, "The Wonders of Life," equally provocative and discursive. The story of these latest years, and of the crowning honor of lecturing on evolution in Berlin, the stronghold of the recreant Virchow, is well told by the translator.

The *Geographical Journal* for April opens with a description of the physical geography and geology of northeastern Rhodesia, with a map and illustrations, by L. A. Wallace, chief surveyor of the British South Africa Company. Among the interesting facts given is the existence of a large tract of land with rich cotton soil. The natives have always grown cotton, and now the company has experimental plantations on which foreign and native cotton seeds have been tried with great success. The great irrigation projects of our own country, with their geographical and economical results, are described in detail by *Major J. H. Beacom, military attaché to the* United States embassy, with illustrations and sketch-maps. In the interesting discussion which followed the reading of the paper before the Royal Geographical Society, eminent engineers gave accounts of irrigation works in India and Egypt. Col. Church called attention to the fact that the ancient Peruvians irrigated millions of acres. A new island thrown up by the action of a mud volcano in the Bay of Bengal, on December 15, 1906, is described by Lieut. E. J. Headlam. It is 307 yards long by 217 yards wide and 19 feet above high-water mark, and the temperature sixteen days after the eruption, three feet six inches below the surface, was 148° Fahrenheit. Fifteen varieties of seeds and pods which had been blown, washed up, or deposited by birds were found there, an indication of how short a time it would take for vegetation to grow on a new-born island in the tropics. The Founders' Medal of the society has been awarded to Dr. F. Moreno, a distinguished Argentine explorer, and the Patrons' Medal to Capt. R. Amundsen, who recently completed the Northwest Passage for the first time in a ship.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for April has for its opening article an interesting account, with numerous illustrations, of the work of our Reclamation Service, by its statistician, C. J. Blanchard. In the four years of its existence, ending the first of last January, it has dug 1,267 miles of canals, built 467 miles of roads, while on the irrigated land eight towns have sprung up and homes in the desert have been provided for 10,000 people. At present it is engaged upon twenty-five irrigation projects, with a force of 10,000 workmen, including several hundred Indians, at an expenditure of about one million dollars a month. The fallacy of the popular belief that the Salton Sea is responsible for the heavy rains of the last two years in the West is shown by Prof. A. J. Henry of the Weather Bureau. In some notes on Central America are many encouraging facts and statistics in regard to the various States, with the exception of Honduras. A very interesting series of pictures of women and children in the East, collected by Miss E. R. Scidmore, enable one to see something of the personal side of the Eastern peoples.

The American Philosophical Society held a general meeting in Philadelphia, April 18 to 20. The Hon. James Bryce was present, made an address, and presented the gold medal of the Royal Astronomical Society to Prof. E. W. Brown of Haverford.

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The following papers were presented: "Retardation in Mental and Moral Development," Dr. Lightner Witmer; "Analogies between the Colonization of Ireland and of Virginia," Prof. Edward P. Cheyney; "Elizabethan and Jacobean College Dramas," Prof. Felix E. Schelling; "The Narratives of the 'Walking on the Sea,'" Prof. William A. Lamberton; "Early French Members of the American Philosophical Society," Dr. J. G. Rosengarten; "The Liver as the Seat of the Soul," Prof. Morris Jastrow, jr.; "Charts Illustrating the Taxonomic Relations of the Monocotyledonous and Dicotyledonous Plant Families," Prof. John W. Harshberger; "Some Experiments with Plant Nutrients," Prof. Henry Kraemer; "New Results in Electro-Analysis," Prof. Edgar F. Smith; "On the Transportation Crisis," Prof. Lewis M. Haupt, all of Philadelphia; "The Influence of Imperceptible Shadows on the Judgment of Distance," Prof. Edward B. Titchener and W. H. Pyle of Ithaca; "Chauvin (Chauvinisme-Calvin, *Cauvin*): Truth and Fiction in the Story of Its Origin," Prof. A. Marshall Elliott; "On Jonah's Whale," Prof. Paul Haupt, Baltimore; "Provisional Report of the Investigation of Foreign and Domestic Stage Micrometers," Dr. Marshall D. Ewell, Chicago; "The Bacteriology of Flax Retting,' Dr. George T. Moore, West Chester, Pa.; "Note as to the Measurement of the Action of Water upon Zinc and Lead," Dr. William Pitt Mason, Troy; "The Production of Synthetic Alcohol," Dr. Harvey W. Wiley and Herman Schreiber; "On Continental Development," Bailey Willis, Washington; "Progress of the Isthmian Canal," Dr. Elihu Thomson, Swampscott, Mass.; "Princeton Archæological Expedition to Syria," Howard Crosby Butler; "The Association Theory of Solutions," Prof. William F. Magie; "South Africa: Geography and Geology," and "Restorations of Santa Cruz Animals," Prof. William B. Scott; "Santa Cruz Typotheria," W. J. Sinclair; "Santa Cruz Birds," Marcus S. Farr, Princeton; "The Groups which are Generated by two Operators of Order Two and Four, Respectively, where Commutator is of Order Two," Prof. G. A. Miller, Urbana, Ill.; "South Africa: Scenery and People," Prof. Ernest W. Brown, Haverford; "On the Temperature, Secular Cooling and Contraction of the Earth, and on the Theory of Earthquakes held by the Ancients," Dr. T. J. J. See, U. S. Naval Observatory, Mare Island, Cal.

The National Academy of Sciences held its spring session in Washington last week. President Ira Remsen of Johns Hopkins was elected president in succession to Prof. Alexander Agassiz, who retires after five years of service; Charles D. Walcott, secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, was chosen vice-president to succeed Dr. Remsen; Arnold Hague of Washington was reëlected secretary. The members of the council are Prof. Henry Fairfield Osborn of the American Museum of Natural History; George E. Hale of Mount Wilson Observatory, California; Prof. Alexander Agassiz of Cambridge; President R. S. Woodward of the Carnegie Institution, Washington; Dr. W. H. Welch of Baltimore; and Prof. R. H. Chittenden of the Sheffield Scientific School. Sir James Dewar, professor of chemistry in the Royal Institute, London; Prof. A. R. Forsyth, mathematician, of Cambridge, England; Prof. David Hilbert, mathematician, of Göttingen; and Prof. J. C. Kapteyn, astronomer, Groningen, Holland, were elected foreign associate members.

On May 28, 1807, Louis Agassiz was born in the parsonage of Motier, Switzerland. The Natural Science Associations of the cantons of Vaud, Freiburg, and Neuenburg, have decided conjointly to celebrate the anniversary of this event in a somewhat elaborate scale.

A monument to the memory of the great geographer August Petermann, the founder of the *Mitteilungen*, is to be erected in the Grand Duke's Park in Gotha, which city was the scene of his greatest work. He is the real founder of the modern science of geography in Germany.

Franz Reinhold Kjellman, professor of botany at Upsala University, died last Monday. He was born in 1846, on the Island of Bromë, in the Swedish Lake of Wener. He studied at Upsala, in 1868, and after accompanying several polar expeditions he became a professor at Upsala, in 1883. He wrote the account of the Swedish polar expedition of 1872 to 1873, and prepared an account of the flora—the seaweeds, etc.—of polar regions.

Drama.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have issued in one volume of 277 pages, a reprint of Alexander Teixeira de Mattos's translation of Maurice Maeterlinck's "Joyzelle," together with Alfred Sutro's acting version of "Monna Vanna." The two plays, dealing with the subtlest aspects of love, are well contrasted. The influence of Shakespeare may be detected in "Joyzelle." Merlin is Prospero; and Arielle, though definitely explained as the old man's "inner force, the neglected power which slumbers in every soul," performs the same tricksy feats as the Ariel of "The Tempest." The play is wholly symbolical, and love, the rare love which Merlin declares occurs not more than once in centuries, suffers and meets even the uttermost test, and is victorious. In "Monna Vanna" love is again subjected to the test—twice subjected. Guido, the husband, fails to meet it; Prinzivalle rises to the level of greatness, and wins the respect and love which the husband by faith might have retained. All this delicate, subtle, elusive, almost illusive vision of love, is expressed by Maeterlinck in language haunting in its exquisite beauty, and impossible to transfer to another tongue. Mr. Sutro disclaims attempt at literalness. Both versions show roughnesses (such as the constant use of "as though" for "as if") which might be eliminated; but for those unable to read the originals, the beauty of the plays themselves will be unspoiled even by imperfections.

Arthur Golding is popularly known only as the author of the translation of Ovid, from which Shakespeare drew most of his mythological lore. He was, in fact, one of the most voluminous and able translators of the Elizabethan age, and we are glad to see his "Tragedie of Abrahams Sacrifice," edited by Dr. Malcolm W. Wallace and reprinted (for the first time) in the handsome series of the University of Toronto Library. "Abraham Sacrifiant," the only play written by Beza, the eminent Swiss reformer and scholar, was published at Geneva in 1550. Golding, in 1575, made a close, almost line for line, rendering of the play into English, and published his work in 1577. The single copy of the book now known to exist is in the Bodleian Library, and Dr. Wallace's present edition is (presumably) an exact transcription, with Introduction and Notes and with a reprint of the French text. The woodcuts in the English volume (they are not in the French editions of Beza) are admirably reproduced in half-tones. Dr. Wallace might be charged, possibly, with the common error of annotating where annotation seems scarcely necessary, as, for instance, in his explanation of the word "plight," meaning "state" or "condition," but in general his work shows commendable common-sense. The tragedy itself is simple and quaint—nothing more, although to Pasquier, a contemporary, it "fit tomber les larmes des yeux," and to Émile Faguet to-day it seems "forte, bien conduite et touchante."

Heinrich Conried has withdrawn from the management of the Irving Place Theatre and has been succeeded by Dr. M. Baumfeld. In a statement of his plans he says that the programme will be changed almost daily. Even the most successful pieces will not be allowed to monopolize the stage. He promises to organize an entirely new and competent stock company, capable of interpreting all the varieties of drama, old and new, domestic and foreign, including the latest products of French, Italian, Spanish, and Scandinavian playwrights. Especial attention, he promises, shall be given to the revival of classic works, such as "Wallenstein," "Emilia Galotti," "Macbeth," "As You Like It," "Der Richter von Zalamea," etc. Nor will the claims of light comedy be neglected. His season will open in October, and Thursday nights are to be devoted to "special literary productions of the modern international type." In other words, Dr. Baumfeld professes the ambition to restore the German theatre in this city to the position which it occupied some years ago, or to put it on a still higher plane. As the manager of a German theatre he will be exempt from one difficulty with which an English-speaking manager would be confronted: his actors will not be exposed to the temptation of offers from rival theatres or combinations. The chief obstacle in his path to commercial as well as artistic success will be the notorious disinclination of the younger generation of German citizens to support a German theatre.

Signor Ermete Novelli expects to return to this country next November. Two of the most important pieces which he purposes to present are the "Nero" of Signor Ceoso and "Macbeth." In the former he has, so it is reported, won triumphs both at home and abroad, but he has never yet attempted Macbeth.

Beginning Monday night, April 29, Robert Mantell will offer some of Shakespeare's plays at the New Amsterdam Theatre. "Julius Cæsar" will be given Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday nights, and Saturday afternoon; "Richard III.," Thursday and Friday nights; "Macbeth" Saturday night; and

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"Merchant of Venice" Wednesday afternoon. The plays for the second week are "King Lear" and "Othello," and Lytton's "Richelieu."

Marlowe's "Dr. Faustus" is to be given at Princeton, April 26, by students of the university. The play was acted by students of Heidelberg two years ago, and in 1904 by the Elizabethan Stage Society in London, and elsewhere, but this, we believe, will be its first presentation in America. The text of 1605 is followed, with scarcely any changes either of omission or transposition.

The retirement from the Russian stage, after thirty-seven years of active work, of the tragic actress, Mme. Ermolova, resulted in a great demonstration in her honor. The artistic world of Moscow gathered at the Literary and Artists'. Club to give her a farewell banquet, and she was the recipient of innumerable addresses from public and private societies. Much regret was expressed that her career should have been interrupted by ill-health at an age when her artistic powers are still in their prime. Mme. Ermolova created, at the Moscow Imperial Theatre, many Schiller parts, and was an especial favorite in Shakespeare. She played almost the entire series of Shakespeare heroines, Juliet, Hermione, Desdemona, Ophelia, and Lady Macbeth being reckoned among her best achievements.

Music.

Personal Recollections of Johannes Brahms. By Georg Henschel. Boston: Richard G. Badger.

Biography does not always confirm the maxim that the style is the man. No one would ever guess from Beethoven's music what an unpolished, rude, untidy person he was. Nor would any one familiar with the austere, dignified compositions of Brahms suspect that one of the main traits of his character was humor, or rather, wit. Georg Henschel has preserved a number of his witty remarks, which usually assume the form of malicious jokes. One day, when Henschel had spoken disparagingly of certain poor compositions by a member of the highest aristocracy, Brahms retorted: "My dear Henschel, let me warn you to be more cautious when speaking of a nobleman's compositions, for you can never know who did 'em!" On another occasion, when a rather well-known composer had asked Brahms's permission to play for him his latest composition, Brahms, after the man had finished, took a sheet of the manuscript between his thumb and middle-finger, and exclaimed: "I say, where do you get your music paper? First rate!" Six years before his death he wrote Henschel the following nonsense letter, made up of Italian expression marks: "Menuetto grazioso da capo e poi lo stesso con variazioni elegantissimi ed ancora dal segno e da capo col repetizione, etc. Cordiali saluti." Only this, and nothing more!

It would also be difficult to find in the music of Brahms traits corresponding to his actions when on a vacation. "We had our swim in the sea together," writes Henschel, "and again found much amusement in diving for little red pebbles." Another time Brahms piloted Henschel to a bull-frog pond he had discovered: "Then we leaned over the pond, caught tiny little baby frogs, and let them jump into the water again from a stone, which greatly amused Brahms." In such intimate hours the master seemed to permit his enthusiastic young friend a deeper insight into the workings of his mind than he allowed the rest of the world, "against which he appeared to be fortified with the *aes triplex* of irony, sarcasm, and indifference."

Henschel first met Brahms in 1874, and saw him the last time on his deathbed in 1897. For a time he saw him frequently, and was sensible enough to keep a diary in which he jotted down some of his friend's wit and wisdom. Being a composer himself, in a modest way, beside an orchestral conductor and a singer, he profited frequently by his friend's words. In regard to some of his songs, "You seem to me too easily satisfied," said Brahms. "One ought never to forget that by actually perfecting *one* piece one gains and learns more than by commencing or half-finishing a dozen." "In writing songs you must endeavor to invent simultaneously with the melody, a healthy, powerful bass. You stick too much to the middle parts." "No heavy dissonances on the unaccentuated parts of the bar, please! That is weak." There is no real creating, Brahms held, without hard work. He thoroughly believed in unconscious cerebration. After conceiving the first phrase of a song —perhaps only half a dozen notes—he could go for a week, and perhaps not think of it again for months. Then, on returning to it, he found it had taken shape.

New light is thrown by Mr. Henschel on the vexed question as to what Brahms really thought of Wagner. Evidently his feelings were undecided and vacillating. One day, with a malicious twinkle in his eye, he read to his guests the manuscript of Wagner's amazing letters to his dressmaker, which he had bought at an auction sale. He hailed the Bayreuth Theatre as a national affair, but never attended any of the festivals, partly because they came in midsummer, when he was resting. He confessed he liked "Walküre" and "Götterdämmerung," but cared less for "Rheingold" and "Siegfried." In place of the mythical Siegfried he would have preferred "young Bonaparte, or some other hero who stands nearer to our sensibilities." It is well known that Brahms was not averse to borrowing themes from Wagner and other composers. On page 33 a conversation is reported in which he said that he had incorporated in one of his songs a charming motive by Scarlatti, and wished there was a way of acknowledging his indebtedness. Henschel suggested that he should simply print Scarlatti's name at the end of the phrase in question, and this was done (opus 72, No. 5).

Considering that Brahms once wrote: "With me the moment is still to come when I shall write the first letter *with pleasure*," Mr. Henschel was lucky in getting twenty-one letters from him in eighteen years. These are printed in the present volume. They are of less interest than the diary, but one sentence of far-reaching importance may be cited from one of them: "As far at least as my experience goes, everybody has, sooner or later, withdrawn his metronome marks."

Art.

THE UFFIZI IN TRANSITION.

FLORENCE, March 27.

The tourists who are Baedekerizing through the Uffizi are having a hard time. Hardly anything corresponds to the book, except the Tribuna, so that the ingenuous visitor is seeing his Botticelli *sans le savoir*, or only by virtue of the label. The changes that have been in progress for ten years and more have been accelerated this season by the transfer of the Venetian pictures to the newly opened galleries near the entrance; and while the arrangement is wholly a provisional one, the reform has gone far enough to reveal the spirit in which it is undertaken, and to forecast the gain and loss. It should be noted, too, that the spectacle of a museum in transition for many years is in itself a rare and instructive one. Generally there is a closing of the doors for a month or so, and then *presto!* change, so far as the public is concerned. But the Uffizi cannot close its doors, both for the humane reason that thousands have come from the ends of the earth to see it, and for the more practical motive that to shut up shop means an appreciable loss of revenue. Hence the stages of its housekeeping are seen of men. To every one concerned with museum polity they are of interest, quite aside from the special concern of every art lover in the Uffizi.

Now the changes, whether made by Corrado Ricci or by his disciples, who are now in charge, have in the main been due not to choice, but to necessity. They do not represent, as so often, the desire to signalize a new régime, or to illustrate a new theory. One may like them or not; one must admit at least that something had to be done. When the pictures at Santa Maria Nuova were removed to the Uffizi, an already crowded gallery was forced to provide two additional exhibition halls. Then very interesting maps in fresco were found under the hangings of the Third Tuscan Hall. To show these it was necessary to move all the pictures, including such treasures as the two Botticelli *tondi*, the Filippi Lippi, and the Annunciation, attributed to Leonardo. The room itself has become a sort of resting-place, a much-needed feature in so large a museum, containing only the Montefeltro portraits by Piero della Francesca and the curious box adorned with the triumphs of Petrarch—of its old contents, besides one or two of the newer acquisitions on easels. Meanwhile pictures had been bought or promoted from the store-room, enough to fill another gallery. In all, then, four new halls had to be found. Fortunately, there existed an unused and almost unknown suite between the entrance and the Tuscan School. It consisted of three large galleries and three cabinets, all capitally lighted, and a long hall in which the light was fair. The obvious superiority of this series of galleries to the familiar halls emboldened the authorities to move the pictures of the Venetian school out of their cramped quarters, and to undertake a considerable rearrangement of the new and displaced pictures of the Tuscan school. One may regret perhaps that the Hall of Lorenzo Monaco was included in the plan, for it was a haven of rest, a refuge from

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the harried tourist, and its three capital pictures, Lorenzo Monaco's masterpiece, and Botticelli's Adoration of the Kings and Birth of Venus, were seen there almost ideally. A far wiser change was the removal of the portraits of painters to the floor below. They were always *hors d'œuvre* in the old position, and got only the dregs of one's atention.

The changes, viewed in their broader aspect, have brought about a notable concentration of scattered exhibits. From the first landing one may conveniently visit the four new halls of portraits of painters, and gape if he will at John S. Sargent's superficially emphatic and graceless presentment of himself, the newest acquisition. At the entrance above, one will find before reaching the Tribuna practically all the pictures of importance of the Italian schools. The first corridor has given up several of its best pieces. This will seem a grievance to many, but it is after all a sentimental regret, for the light there is execrable, and the throng confusing. Enough of the old favorites—Simone Memmi's Annunciation, Lorenzo Monaco's Adoration of the Magi, and the early Giottesque pieces—have been left to make a veteran still feel at home. Beyond the first corridor there is now little of graphic consequence, except the beautiful new room devoted to the early Flemings, and, of course, the drawings, which remain as always at the far end. Evidently the visitor has been saved many steps, and is spared the baffling and miscellaneous appeal of the old galleries along the third corridor. This concentration of the finest pictures seems then to be a reform worthy of perpetuation, though presumably the mere growth of the Tuscan school may eventually relegate the Venetians to their old locality.

Before discussing the new galleries which now contain the bulk of the *Quattrocentisti* and the Venetians, we should consider the general decorative aspect of the rooms. The authorities have been wise enough not to imitate the palatial fittings of the older galleries. These new halls have merely coffered cypress ceilings in the natural color and low walnut baseboards, with a pavement of large bricks which have an excellent tone and texture. The walls are kalsomined in a slaty green, upon which panels with old gold have great value, or in several shades of terra-cotta, of which one that is reddish and one that has a bluish suggestion are effective, while a lifeless chocolate brown, more rarely used, is always either neutral or positively ugly. In general, one may commend the simple good taste of the installation. It is in keeping with the newer ideas of museum display, but it took some originality and courage to adopt these ideas in the Uffizi with the ultra-palatial Pitti only a furlong away.

As for the new halls, it would be unfair to dwell upon the arrangement of the two Venetian galleries, which is frankly temporary. It has brought us at least such a collocation as the row of early Venetians that supports the central group of three Giorgiones—the Knight of Malta, the Infant Moses, and the Judgment of Solomon. Here are also Giambellino's idyllic Sacra Conversazione, restored to him after the squabbles of the critics; Mantegna's marvellous triptych; not to mention Carpaccio, Bissolo, Cima, Licinio, and Bartolommeo Vivarini. The row affords more keen and purely pictorial impressions than can be gathered within equal space in the museum. Opposite is a radient spot, where Guardi, Canaletto, Bernardo Bellotto, and Sebastiano Ricci, flank a *plafond* and a smaller fragment by Tiepolo. These are mostly admirable new purchases, and they remind us impressively how little genuine aerial quality and luminosity in the major key depend upon the niggling technic of the modern impressionists.

In the largest of the new Tuscan Halls one may best note the merits of the rearrangement. Here are two Baldovinettis and two crucifixes by Lorenzo Monaco ideally placed against the sage green plaster. Vechietta, a recent acquisition, affords an even more precious spot in a fine triptych. The large Crucifixion by Andrea del Castagno, the battered Last Judgment by Fra Bartolommeo, and the pencil copy that is necessary to its comprehension, and a number of Soglianis are merely in storage. But in the beautiful accord of the panels by Baldovinetti, Orcagna, and Vecchietta with the background, and in the simple and pleasing proportions of the hall, one may glimpse a splendid gallery that is to be. The next room is, in spite of its sombre and unsympathetic plaster, far the handsomest of the experimental galleries. The end walls are occupied by those old vis-a-vis: Lorenzo Monaco's lovely Adoration of the Virgin, and Fra Angelico's sadly over-rated tabernacle for the Arte di Lana. To right and left of the entrance door are polyptychs by Gentile da Fabriano and Giovanni di Paolo of Siena—both consummate and gorgeous examples of tempera technic, of cunning glazing of tints over gold. It was a sound æsthetic feeling that gave as pendants to these on the opposite wall, a Bicci di Lorenzo and a nondescript Florentine triptych, both of kindred decorative quality with the major pieces, though far less significant as art. On an easel stands the Coronation of the Virgin by Fra Angelico. The room is a joy; and one should note the good sense that has included the two splendid examples of the Sienese and Romagna schools, instead of relegating them to especial local categories, where they would be less effective.

With the three small cabinets that are named after Botticelli, Leonardo, and Michelangelo doubts begin to intrude. Gain and loss are blended perplexingly. One must admit that the Birth of Venus is well seen, but is there any real gain justifying the abandonment of its old shrine? It is an advantage to have the two great *tondi* hung so that the superiority of the Madonna with Six Angels to its more popular mate becomes apparent even to a careless eye. But what a shock to find that magnificent bit of realism, the Adoration of the Kings, cheapened by the proximity of the two idealistic round pictures! To find the Calumny effaced by the horribly repainted Adoration of the Kings, which should have stayed in the store room! To enjoy such little masterpieces as the St. Jerome and the Judith only by a painful effort of abstraction! What inert company, too, the three Virtues of the Pollaiuoli are for their more sensitive neighbors! From the point of view of art history this room has its obvious justification, from that of pleasure one could heartily wish it undone, or, at least, the smaller and miniature-like masterpieces removed to a place where their individual excellence might be readily perceived.

It is such a delight merely to see Leonardo's noble Adoration of the Magi, that one must forgive much in the new Sala Leonardo. In the old Scuola Toscana its company killed it. Now it has been cleaned and put in a perfect light, and one may study, if only in the master's intention, what was to have been, and, in a way, still is, the consummate religious picture of the early Renaissance. But alas it has been taken out of a beautiful old frame and for greater pomp installed in a hideous gold and walnut contraption of the modern cabinetmaker. Other experimentalists and precursors are present: Uccello's battle piece, as ever grotesquely and finely decorative; Domenico Veneziano's triptych, shrilly out of key; Lorenzo di Credi's charming Venus; three more of the tiresome Virtues of the worthy Pollaiuoli; Cosimo Rosselli's Adoration of the Magi, artistically a void; and that enigmatic and terribly damaged Annunciation, some portion of which Leonardo surely painted, notably the landscape which has not suffered much. As an ensemble the room is displeasing, but one will hardly cavil at any experiment that gives such salience to the finest of Leonardo's early works.

Much the same comment applies to the Sala Michelangelo, where the round Holy Family, which, like everything else, was unfavorably placed in the Tribuna, now gives its full effect of a serene nobility more classic than that of the later works. Art history requires that it be accompanied by three peculiarly unprepossessing (two adulterated) examples of Signorelli; by Ghirlandaio's magnificent portrait of a Turkish rug (the finest before Gérôme)—there are also a Virgin and Saints; by a tolerable Mainardi; and an uninspired Antonio Pollaiuolo. It should be noted that the unharmonious character of the Leonardo and the Michelangelo room is due to the partial adoption of a genealogical principle of exhibition. The aim is to show a succession of masters leading up to their supreme pupil, who is further magnified by the presence of his fellow-students. Such a plan, I believe, will almost invariably lead to unattractive galleries. It is a sound instinct that keeps works of a period together, but within this limitation it seems as if there should be wide discretion to illustrate real, that is, æsthetic, affinities. We have seen that Lorenzo Monaco, Fra Angelico, Gentile da Fabriano, and Giovanni di Paolo can live together, whereas, Cosimo Rosselli, Ghirlandaio, and Leonardo cannot. Is it not the very purpose of museums to make these subtler affinities apparent, leaving genealogy to its proper vehicle the printed book, or at least limiting it to schools in which the illustration of artistic parentèle constitutes a beautiful display?

No gallery that contained the great triptych that Hugo van der Goes painted for the Hospital Church of Santa Maria Nuova could lack distinction. And aside from its finest exhibit the little gallery in the Third Corridor, which is devoted to the early Flemish schools, is highly attractive. Van der Weyden, Gerard David, Memling, and his imitators are arranged

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on three walls, as a sort of confirmation of the impression of the Van der Goes. Two windows are covered by faded tapestries, which fall to the floor. It is the most restful hall in the museum, a place where one would willingly sit and wait for a more serene vision than is generally vouchsafed in museums. Possibly these Flemish pictures, which so narrowly shave the gulf of mere literal representation, have a peculiar value in a gallery devoted to the highly abstract art of the Tuscan school. They show us how much success or failure in art is a matter of hair-breadths, and they give a wholesome reminder that the pitfall for the artist is not literal representation, but that ignoble or indifferent vision that from the first observation to the last touch of the brush cheapens the thing seen.

Of the large hall devoted to later Flemish painting, and containing Rubens, Van Dyck, Porbus, and Sustermans, there is not much to say, except that the ensemble is unpleasing, and that the great Rubenses of the Henry IV. series have been degraded by some recent repainting to mere shabby ghosts of themselves.

Space forbids anything like an analysis of the older halls, as affected by these changes. Suffice it to say that the old Tuscan School has gained a certain unity through the loss of its masterpiece, the Leonardo, and by gaining Piero di Cosimo's Assumption; but the eclectics are still sadly in the way. Why do storerooms exist if not to preserve the efforts of the Lamis, Vanninis, and Bilivertis? It would be futile to discuss that old eyesore, the Tribuna, possibly the worst lighted and most ill-arranged exhibition hall of importance on the Continent. Still, it has been consecrated by many generations of guide books and gabblers about art, and I presume no director can be expected to have the courage to lay hand upon this venerable disorder. No one who has had the good fortune to see any of these pictures removed for copying purposes can have failed to note how ill seen they were before in what Mr. Baedeker, with appropriate rhetoric, has characterized as a "magnificent collection of masterpieces." In the four little cabinets that follow the Tribuna remains that ancient hodgepodge, Italian, German, French, Dutch, and Flemish, which will some day tax the ingenuity of a reforming administration. When that hour strikes, all lovers of this great museum will hope that its tradition may be respected. The Uffizi has never tried to exemplify the history of art. For four hundred years its collections have been based, not on erudition, but on taste. It has upheld an ideal which needs merely to be accentuated and perfected, the abandonment of which would be a positive misfortune. M.

There is an unwonted modernity about the April *Burlington*. One of the leading articles is on "The Case for Modern Art," by "A Modern Painter," and another is on "The Modern House and the Modern Picture"; while the departments of Art in Germany and Art in America are devoted largely to accounts of modern exhibitions —in the latter case to the one hundred and second exhibition of the Pennsylvania Academy. Even the older art dealt with in the number is not so very old, Hals, Velasquez, Hokusai, and Copley being the principal painters discussed, while the Slip Decorated Dishes of Chirk Castle date from the eighteenth century. "The Case for Modern Art" is illustrated by four plates from paintings by C. H. Shannon, William Nicholson, and J. J. Shannon, and a drawing by A. E. John—all of them of the younger generation of British painters, and all but J. J. Shannon comparatively unknown in this country. In the article on "The Modern House and the Modern Picture," Mr. Clutton-Brock maintains that the falling off of picture buying is not as had been suggested in an earlier number, due to the fact that the modern decorated house has no place for pictures, but to the fact that modern pictures are not decorative—are, indeed, too often not pictures, in any proper sense, at all. "There can be no principle of selection without an object," he says, "and most pictures at present are painted without an object, and therefore upon no principle of selection." He urges painters, if they cannot design a picture for a particular room, at least to design it "like a good piece of china, so that it will be a reasonable ornament to a reasonable room." This is written for England, but some of our own painters might perhaps consider how much of the preference of the patrons for second-rate "Old Masters," of which they complain, is due to the fact that these old pictures, or even the fraudulent imitations of old pictures, have a decorative value, and are "a reasonable ornament to a reasonable room," while too many of their own works, whatever their scientific or psychological value, could never ornament anything.

From Lemcke & Buechner comes the announcement of a work on "Assyrische Skulpturen," designed primarily to illustrate the historical and prophetic books of the Old Testament. The work is to extend to twelve *Lieferungen*, each containing fifteen large plates with text. Nine have already appeared, the editor, after the fourth, being Dr. Archibald Paterson. The specimen plate sent to us is magnificent, but the English subscription is amusing, viz.: "Assur-Bani-Pal Pourring Libations over Dead Lions before a Altar"; nor is the French much better.

In "Studies in Pictures" (Charles Scribner's Sons), J. C. Van Dyke writes with his usual cool good sense. The book is intended as "an introduction to the famous galleries," and warns the traveller as to what he may and may not expect, putting him into the proper frame of mind to appreciate masterpieces that may appear strange to his modern sense, and clearing away misconceptions and preconceived ideas. The first part, in five chapters, deals with the modern gallery where the masters are out of place; with restoration and repainting; with false attributions, copies, and forgeries; with the themes of the masters, which meant more to them than to us; and with their workmanship, which is still as important as ever. The second part deals successively with the various departments of painting, as figure painting, portrait painting, genre painting, animal painting, and landscape and marine painting. On all these subjects Mr. Van Dyke speaks intelligently, his greatest limitation of sympathy appearing in his treatment of the classical ideal, where he seems to lump everything together, from Ingres to the bonbon box painters, as merely pretty and popular, and lacking in all strength and character. To speak of the work of Ingres as "empty," "forceless," and "insipid," is only less absurd than to speak of it as "always popular with the unthinking mob"; and such absurdity is only partly redeemed by the acknowledgment that "not all pictures are to be judged by this [the naturalistic] standard," and that "classic or academic drawing may be extremely graceful and fill space decoratively." Imagine the master of incisive line as forceless and insipid—the painter of the portrait of Bertin as merely a graceful decorator, the harsh and austere advocate of artistic probity as a complaisant caterer to the vulgar many! Of course, Mr. Van Dyke does not really mean this, but it was negligent of him to give that impression. For the rest, his book may be recommended to those concerned as generally sound and useful.

W. G. Rawlinson's catalogue and description of Turner's "Liber Studiorum," first published in 1878, is now issued, in a thoroughly revised second edition, by the Macmillan Company. It is almost a model of what such a book should be, and is likely to be indispensable to the student of Turner's great work. By the inclusion of many quotations from Ruskin and other writers, with whom Mr. Rawlinson does not hesitate on occasion to disagree, and of the correspondence between Turner and his engravers and other matter printed in the appendices, a large part of the book is even made readable, though it pretends only to be a work of reference.

Paintings by H. H. Reppert will be exhibited at the Lenox Art Academy till April 27, inclusive; recent pictures by Carleton Wiggins at Macbeth's, April 27; paintings by Orlando Rouland, Clausen's, April 30; water colors by C. S. Forbes, George Busse's, April 30; drawings and etchings by Daubigny, Frederick Keppel & Co.'s, May 1.

A collection of paintings gathered by Mrs. Anna N. Kendall of Latrobe, Ill., was sold at auction at the American Art Galleries in this city last Friday night. The following are the more notable prices: Anton Mauve, The Grafter's Cow, $1,650; Nature, $3,000; Josef Israëls, The Bashful Suitor, $1,500; the Young Mother, $1,750; First Steps, $4,300; B. J. Blommers, The New Baby, $1,550; Children of the Beach, $1,700; The Simple Life, $1,650; Jacob Maris, Barges, Ville-Girerre, $3,550; J. H. Weissenbruch, A Hazy Day, $1,800; Théophile de Bock, Approaching Storm, $1,500; Albert Neuhuys, The Latest News, $3,050; Willem Maris, Ducks and Ducklings, $2,750; Fritz Thaulow, Bridge at Verona, $2,000.

An exhibition of portraits of women, painted by leading French artists between 1870 and 1900, will be open in Paris, at Bagatelle, on May 15.

Finance.

"LOAN EXPANSION."

On Saturday, April 13, the weekly statement of the New York Associated Banks

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reported an increase of $36,968,000 in loans, and Wall Street—which takes as keen interest in a "new high record" in financial statistics as the sporting community takes in a lowering of the "trotting record"—announced at once that this was the largest weekly loan expansion ever known. Only on three previous occasions, indeed, had as large a weekly increase as $30,000,000 been achieved; only in six weeks of New York's banking history—all of them falling since 1899—had a week's loan expansion run beyond $20,000,000.

Compared with the maximum weekly returns of the great state banks of Europe, the $36,968,000 increase was not a "record." There are occasions—chiefly the "year-end settlements"—when those institutions take over, for various reasons, large liabilities of the private banks of their vicinity, and show a weekly loan expansion larger than this figure. Thus, in the week ending January 3, this year, the Bank of France added $67,000,000 to its loan account and the Imperial Bank of Germany $92,000,000, both of which sums much exceeded the New York loan expansion of two weeks ago. But in the very next week of January, the French and German banks reduced their loan account, respectively, $59,000,000 and $84,000,000. In other words, the huge expansion of the week before had been only for temporary purposes. This was not the case with New York's increase in the week ending April 13. On the contrary, last Saturday's bank statement, covering the week ending April 20, reported further increase of $25,347,000.

For the fortnight, therefore, bank loans at New York had expanded $62,056,000. The nearest parallel to this remarkable two-week showing was an increase of $51,231,000, early in 1905. It will be of some interest to inquire what the reason is for such increase. On the face of things, this borrowing is certainly not less remarkable in that it followed immediately on a Stock Exchange "liquidating" movement, in the course of which bank loans in the tens of millions, previously used by speculators to "carry" stocks, were known to have been paid off and cancelled. This Wall Street liquidation had continued during the greater part of the present year; yet the total New York bank loan account, last Saturday, was $92,000,000 greater than at the close of 1906. How is this seeming discrepancy from the December figures, and how, in particular, is the record-breaking loan expansion of the fortnight past, to be explained?

Partly by certain large operations in connection with new issues of securities. In December, three great railways—the Northern Pacific, the Great Northern, and the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul—offered to their shareholders new stock, amounting in the aggregate to $250,000,000. Of the Great Northern's $60,000,000 issue, subscribers were to pay 10 per cent. on January 21, and equal instalments on February 7, March 7, and April 8; but the Minnesota lawyers obtained an injunction, and payments were therefore suspended until a few weeks ago, when the injunction was dissolved. As a result, 40 per cent., or $24,000,000, became payable in the second week of April, and in the following week subscriptions to a $30,000,000 bond issue of the American Telephone Company fell due. It is the custom of large subscribers to such security issues to borrow from banks most of the money for the instalment payments, pledging as collateral on such loans the stocks which they owned. In due course, loans made for such purpose are paid off from accruing income.

Although many subscriptions of the sort are made without raising money from the banks, these incidents account for much of the loan increase. They do not account for all, especially when the fortnight's $62,056,000 loan expansion was made in the face of reduction in ordinary Stock Exchange loans. The true explanation lies in two well-known incidents of the money market: the enormous borrowing by Wall Street from foreign banks and from banks at interior cities, when New York money rates were high last winter, and the paying off of such loans when money fell to low figures at New York. When the fortnight began, within which this great New York loan expansion fell, demand loans were bringing as high as 3½ per cent. in Wall Street, and short time loans 4½. When the fortnight ended, demand loans had gone as low as 1¾ per cent. and short-time loans to 3. Banks in London, Paris, Berlin, or in our own larger interior cities, could earn more than this by lending money at home; naturally, therefore, they called in their Wall Street loans.

As they did so, the loans thus cancelled were assumed by New York banks, whose increased cash reserve entitled them to do so. Many Western banks keep large deposits with New York institutions, for the use of which the New York banks pay them at the rate of 2 per cent. When Wall Street money rates rise to 6, or 8, or 20 per cent., it is clearly the interest of an inland bank to withdraw its deposits from the New York institution and lend them out for its own account at the market rate. But when Wall Street bids very low rates for money, it is equally the interest of these out-of-town banks to cancel their Wall Street loans and leave the proceeds again on deposit at the 2 per cent. rate. Naturally, the bank which receives such a deposit loses no time in lending it out again. This process, very extensively pursued in 1904, has been repeated this month.

The magnitude of this recent increase in the loan account results partly from the suddenness of the fall in New York money rates—a consequence of the Stock Exchange liquidation—and partly also from the fact that rates at interior money markets have not declined so rapidly. This last is an interesting phase of the present situation because it suggests that the West, if its own trade activity continues unabated, may possibly have less money to spare when Wall Street again tries to "finance a boom." To what extent the interior lenders helped to sustain last winter's speculation may be judged from the fact that, in November, bankers estimated that $200,000,000 "Western money" was then lent out in Wall Street.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Charles Francis. Three Phi Beta Kappa Addresses. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 net.

Albright, Evelyn May. The Short-Story. Macmillan Co. 90 cents net.

Anthology of French Piano Music. 2 vols. Boston: Oliver Ditson Co. $1.50.

Bagley, William Chandler. Classroom Management. Macmillan Co. $1.25 net.

Balzac's Père Goriot. Edited by R. L. Sanderson. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 80 cents.

Barry, Richard. The Events Man. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.25 net.

Benson, Arthur Christopher. Beside the Still Waters. Putnams.

Brierley, J. Religion and Experience. Thomas Whittaker. $1.40 net.

Brooke, Emma. Sir Elyot of the Woods. Duffield & Co. $1.50.

Burbank, Luther. The Training of the Human Plant. Century Co. 60 cents.

Causes of Decay in a British Industry. Longmans. $2.50 net.

Corneille, Pierre. Polyeucte, Martyr. Edited by George N. Henning. Boston: Ginn & Co. 45 cents.

Cornill, Carl. Introduction to the Canonical Books of the Old Testament. Translated by G. H. Box. Putnams.

Cornford, Francis Macdonald. Thucydides Mythistoricus. London: Edward Arnold.

Cruickshank, J. W. and A. M. Christian Rome. A. Wessels Co. $1.25 net.

Ficke, Arthur Davison. The Happy Princess and Other Poems. Small, Maynard & Co. $1.

Forbes, Henry Prentiss. The Johannine Literature of the Acts of the Apostles. Putnams.

Forbes-Lindsay, C. H. America's Insular Possessions. 2 vols. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co.

Forrest, J. Dorsey. The Development of Western Civilization. University of Chicago Press. $2 net.

Francke, Kuno. German Ideals of To-day. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50 net.

Frank, Ulrich. Simon Eichelkatz, The Patriarch. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America.

French, Allen. The Book of Vegetables. Macmillan Co. $1.75 net.

Garland, Hamlin. The Log Trail. Harpers. $1.25.

Galsworthy, John. The Country House. Putnams.

Goldsmith's Deserted Village. Edited by Louise Pound. Boston: Ginn & Co. 20 cents.

Handbook of American Indians. Part I. Edited by Frederick W. Hodge. Washington: Government Printing Office.

Harcourt, Mrs. Charles. Good Form for Women. Philadelphia; John C. Winston Co.

Harding, Ellison. The Demetrian. Brentanos.

Harnack, Adolf, and Wilhelm Herrmann. Essays on the Social Gospel. Translated by G. M. Craik. Putnams.

Herter, C. A. The Common Bacterial Infections of the Digestive Tract. Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.

Hill, Headon. The Avengers. B. W. Dodge & Co. $1.50.

Hodges, George. The Year of Grace. Thomas Whittaker. $1 net.

Howard, Earl Dean. The Cause and Extent of the Recent Industrial Progress of Germany. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 net.

Howells, William Dean. Through the Eye of the Needle. Harpers. $1.50.

Hoyt, William Henry. The Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence. Putnams.

Kansas State Board of Agriculture, 15th Annual Report of Vol. XX. Topeka, Kans.

Leadbetter, Florence E. Outlines and Studies to accompany Myer's Mediæval and Modern History. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Lindsay, Thomas M. A History of the Reformation. Scribners.

McCrackan, W. D. The Italian Lakes. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

McGaffey, Ernest. Outdoors. Scribners. $1.25 net.

McIntyre, Margaret A. The Cave Boy. Appleton.

Maxwell, William H. School Grammar. American Book Co. 60 cents.

Mississippi Historical Society. Edited by Franklin L. Riley. Oxford, Miss.

Naylor, James Ball. The Scalawags. B. W. Dodge & Co. $1.50.

Noorden, Carl von. Metabolism and Practical Medicine. 2 vols. Chicago: W. T. Keener & Co. $4 net.

Norton, Samuel Wilber. Chicago Traction. Chicago, Ill.

Ostwald, W. Letters to a Painter on the Theory and Practice of Painting. Translated by H. W. Morse. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Peterson, Henry. Dulcibel. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co. $1.50.

Petrarca, Francesco. On the Death of Madonna Laura. Translated by Agnes Tobin. London: William Heinemann.

Petre, F. Loraine. Napoleon's Conquest of Prussia. John Lane Co. $5 net.

Philipson, David. The Reform Movement in Judaism. Macmillan Co. $2 net.

Reddale, Frederic. Successful Authorship. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 25 cents.

Reichel, George V. Bible Truth Through Eye and Ear. Thomas Whittaker. $1 net.

Reinach, S. Apollo. Translated by Florence Simmonds. Imported by Scribners. $1.50 net.

Rickert, Edith. The Golden Hawk. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.

Scott's Quentin Durward. Edited by R. W. Bruère. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.

Seven Sages of Rome. Edited by Killis Campbell. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.25.

Siler, George. Inside Facts on Pugilism. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.

Smith, J. Allen. The Spirit of American Government. Macmillan Co. $1.25 net.

Starr, Frederick. The Truth about the Congo. Chicago: Forbes & Co. $1.

Strode, William. Poetical Works. Now first reprinted from the original edition of 1655. London: Edited and published by Bertram Dobell

Trevelyan, George Macaulay. Garibaldi's Defence of the Roman Republic. Longmans. $2 net.

Webster, Jean. Jerry Junior. Century Co. $1.50.

Webster's New Standard Dictionary. Compiled by E. T. Roe. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 25 cents.

Zangwill, Israel. Ghetto Comedies. Macmillan Co. $1.50.

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